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CONTENTS.

NOTES OF THE WEEK.	PAGE	MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES (continued):	PAGE	CORRESPONDENCE (continued):	PAGE
LEADING ARTICLES:		Day-before-Yesterday Drama	744	Cats and the Storm. By Walter	
The Cape Crisis	736	Royal Insurance	745	Herries Pollock	747
The Peking Problem	737	VERSE:		REVIEWS:	
The Progress of the War	738	A Recusant	745	The Profanity of Rhetoric	748
The Farmer's Outlook	739	CORRESPONDENCE:		Mr. Rhodes	749
MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES:		Church Schools and Spanish Bigotry.		Sheridan	750
Anglicans on the Anglican Position.		By H. O. Arnold-Forster, M.P.	746	Fossil Animals	751
By W. H. Mallock	740	The Release of the Earl of Salisbury		Worthy of Marryat	751
Women and Work	741	by Philip VI. By James Mackinnon	746	A Recovered Civilisation	752
The Riviera di Levante. By Stephen		England and America. By James H.		Four Novels	752
Gwynn	742	Bates	747	NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS	753
The Shame of Covent Garden	743	Mr. Gill and the Plan of Campaign.		FRENCH LITERATURE	754
		By E. S. Robertson	747		

We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications; and to this rule we can make no exception.

NOTES OF THE WEEK.

From the 5th to the 12th June no account was received from Lord Roberts of General Botha's movements after the occupation of Pretoria, but on the latter date he reported that he had retired to a place about fifteen miles east on the Middelburg Road, and encamped in a position unassailable from the front. On the 11th Lord Roberts advanced making the usual flank movements with cavalry and mounted infantry. In the result and after great opposition the key of the enemy's position was captured. The despatch gave no further account of this engagement, but Lord Roberts stated that he hurried back to receive news of Lord Methuen to whom he had sent Lord Kitchener in consequence of information that the Free Staters had taken advantage of the crossing of the Vaal to interrupt the line of communications. The two officers met on the 10th at Vrededorf Road Station, and on the 11th at Rhenoster River by a victory over De Wet's troops the communication between Pretoria and the Rhenoster was restored. It appears that Lord Methuen retook the hospital where were the wounded of the 4th battalion of the Derbyshire Militia which on the 7th inst. had been surrounded and overpowered at Roodeval. On the 13th Lord Roberts, continuing his account of the engagement with Botha, states that after fighting all day on the 12th the enemy evacuated their position and retired eastwards. An interesting passage in the despatch states that General Buller's force and Lord Roberts afforded each other mutual assistance as the occupation of Pretoria caused numbers of the Boers to withdraw from Laing's Nek, and General Buller's advance to Volksrust made them feel that their rear would shortly be threatened.

It appears that the reports of an armistice for three days granted by General Buller to Commandant Botha were correct and the armistice expired on the 6th instant. General Buller makes no mention of his agreement not to attack Laing's Nek for this period and on the 8th he reported that as the result of two days' fighting he had obtained a position from which Laing's Nek could be rendered untenable, Botha's Pass having been captured. Further telegrams of 11th and 12th narrate that on the former day Almond's Nek the last defile to Charlestown Flats was forced and on the latter

that General Buller was encamped four miles north of Volksrust. Laing's Nek and Majuba were completely evacuated by the Boers on the previous night. General Buller's latest despatch on the 14th is dated from Laing's Nek and states that General Lyttelton had secured the formal submission of the town and district of Wakkerstroom.

We hear a good deal about the Boer sympathies of the Portuguese authorities at Lorenzo Marques; but the conduct of Mr. Hollis, the United States Consul at that place, strikes us as being worse than anything attributed to the Portuguese. Mr. Hollis has never concealed his pro-Boer sentiments, and he took advantage of the capture of Pretoria to assume that Mr. Hay's mission was ipso facto terminated, and actually visited Mr. Kruger as the representative of the United States. The American Government repudiated Mr. Hollis' action, and would doubtless have relieved him of his consular function, were not a presidential campaign in progress. Mr. Oppenheim's evidence before the correctional tribunal of Brussels, by the way, rather impairs the dignity of Mr. Kruger's pose as the Grand Monarch. It is all very well for Mr. Kruger to sit in a railway carriage and say "*L'Etat c'est moi*," but Mr. Oppenheim sorrowfully swears that he gave Mr. Kruger 100,000 francs to get his Selati railway concession.

The deaths from sunstroke at Aldershot are much to be deplored. But in fairness to the very efficient headquarters staff who made the arrangements, the attendant circumstances must be remembered. The occasion was the first really big field day this summer, and the men were somewhat unprepared for the tropical heat. Some surprise has been evinced at the bread and cheese breakfast of the Highland Light Infantry. But though it is unusual fare upon which to begin the day, it is a favourite breakfast with soldiers and no novelty. The question of helmets opens up more serious issues. It is true that the Southern force were ordered to parade in field-service caps. But the fact is the authorities—with an almost criminal disregard of what happened at Salisbury in 1898—have provided the Reserve and some Militia battalions with no other headgear.

Very unsatisfactory too is the War Office treatment of Britain's colonial auxiliaries. In the field Lord Roberts has made what amends he could for the errors of Pall Mall. But the opportunities of the War Office for mischief are many. Some Canadians who have been wounded have been sent to Shorncliffe. They complain of their food, their crowded accommodation and the

lack of furlough. The War Office reply is that having volunteered as privates they must be treated as such. Could red tape go further? The War Office is bent on proving that it has neither heart nor head. The Colonists volunteered to fight for the Empire; in the field, army regulations must be observed at all costs. They did not volunteer to be made victims of when the fortunes of war had placed them hors de combat. Great Britain has cause to be proud of her colonial auxiliaries: the least she can do is to see that they do not return to their homes with complaints of ingratitude.

The Service Members Committee on Army Reform lays down certain broad principles in its memorandum which the experience of the war has made the common property of every intelligent person. A general scheme for the defence of the Empire embracing the Colonial local schemes of defence must be arranged. Of the regular army an adequate proportion should be organised as a force complete in itself ready for immediate service abroad and independent of the Reserves with the exception of the first class. Artillery, cavalry, transport, ammunition trains both for this part of the field army and that at home must be on a footing of equal efficiency in organisation, preparation, armament and training, and in neither case must they be left to be manufactured at a moment's notice as they had to be when the present war broke out. The additional forces for home defence would be organised with a due proportion of all arms and with cadres of transport, ammunition train, and services ready to be filled up and rendering these forces mobile in the field.

It is suggested also that the army should be relieved from the duty of garrisoning purely naval ports and coaling stations abroad. An elastic recruiting scheme is insisted on as the indispensable requirement of army reform while the military system is purely voluntary. Different terms must be offered in order that the men may be divided into those who enrol for a longer period of service abroad and those who enrol for a shorter period of home service. In the latter class the terms should be shortened to the minimum that will make efficient soldiery in order to increase the Reserves to the utmost. This is accompanied by the proviso that efficiency must be maintained by brief annual training in musketry and drill so long as after discharge these men form part of the first-class Army Reserve. The proposal of a combination of long and short service periods, and other proposals of the memorandum, do not derive their value from their novelty—of many of them we have had suggestions in the speeches of Lord Lansdowne and Mr. Wyndham—but from their coincidence with public opinion which is prepared to support the Government in any sufficiently drastic measure of army reform.

The suggestions as to the chain of responsibility are too vague, and do not sufficiently define the duties of each component part of the military machine. Though presumably the scheme intends to make the Commander-in-Chief once more the sole mouthpiece by which military opinion is conveyed to the parliamentary chief of the War Office, it does not say so. This is a most important point. The fact that since Lord Wolseley has been in office the heads of the great military departments have had the direct ear of the Parliamentary chief has concentrated far too much power in the hands of the latter, and has rendered the former—as indeed was intended—little else than a figurehead. We cordially agree with the service members in condemning centralisation, but much must be done in this respect besides readjusting the military districts.

Mr. John Morley denouncing "militarism" at a dinner of the Palmerston Club was an incongruity, which the speaker could not explain away. The Palmerston Club was founded about twenty-two years ago by some Whig undergraduates at Balliol and University Colleges, of whom the present Earl of Portsmouth was the most active. Mr. Gladstone and Lord Granville attended the inaugural banquet, at which the most interesting speech was delivered from "below the salt" by a young Fellow of New College, Mr. Alfred

Milner. It would be more dignified for the Palmerston Club to change its name than under its present title to entertain such guests as Mr. John Morley, whose speech last Saturday was nothing but an insult to the memory of a great statesman. The verbal hit about changing the name of the Orange Free into the Orange River State (its original name, by the way) would have been a fair platform score, but was surely unworthy of the audience and the orator. Mr. Morley did not venture to descend into the region of the concrete, but dealt in austere generalities, and, as Burke long ago observed, Jacobins derive great comfort from "the hocus-pocus of abstractions." Militarism will do as well as another.

The question of the treatment of the rebels has led to a Cabinet crisis at the Cape. Mr. Schreiner and his colleagues were hopelessly divided. On the one hand, Messrs. Merriman, Sauer and Te Water insisted on an amnesty for all except the ringleaders; on the other the Premier, supported by Messrs. Solomon and Herboldt, proposed that the rebels should be tried by a special Court and if convicted disfranchised. When the question was submitted to the Bond Caucus, they voted for Mr. Hofmeyr's view that the decision should be postponed. Mr. Schreiner refused to be a party to this temporising policy and resigned. Sir Gordon Sprigg was at once sent for by the Governor, and the idea of a Coalition Ministry was much discussed. Mr. Schreiner however is reported to be unwilling to take office with Sir Gordon Sprigg, though he would support either a Coalition or a Progressive Government in the adoption of firm but not vindictive measures against the rebels.

Not often is the atmosphere of the Royal Colonial Institute gatherings so electric as on Tuesday when Mr. Lionel Phillips read his paper on the future of South Africa. What is to be done with the Boer States? That for the next year or two they must be administered as crown colonies there seems little doubt. The period at which they may be given autonomy however should not be unnecessarily delayed. Mr. Phillips suggests that the Imperial Government should make itself responsible for a loan secured on the resources of the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony. As South Africa has to be British from the Zambesi to the Cape, Mr. Phillips urges that no concession should be made to the Dutch in the matter of language. English, and English alone, should be the official language. Magnanimity must be disallowed. It is a quality which the Boers wholly misunderstand. They regard it as a sign of weakness, not of strength. "Now is the time," says Mr. Phillips, "to err rather on the side of displaying than of concealing the fact that England is master." Bitter experience warns us that he is right. Firm government on the lines he indicates ought to pave the way to a final settlement. If governors were appointed for each of the States of South Africa, whether crown colony or self-governing colony, with the High Commissioner as Governor-General, the federal question would be simplified. South African Federation would probably evolve itself in the process of time.

Disorder continues to reign in China. Interruption of the railway from Tien-tsin to Peking has up to the present prevented the composite forces of about 2,000 British, French, Russian, German and other nationalities from reaching the capital, and till news is received of their arrival anxiety for the safety of the European residents and the legations will not be removed. It is difficult to follow precisely the accounts given of the landing of the various forces and their exact numbers, but it is evident that the Powers are hurrying up their contingents to Ta-ku and getting them sent up to Tien-tsin as rapidly as possible for their destination at Peking. And it appears that on the 11th the international force under the British Admiral, Sir Edward Seymour, engaged the Boxers at Lang-fang, half-way between Tien-tsin and Peking and defeated them, inflicting a loss on them of about thirty-five killed. There are rumours of larger bodies of Russian troops being employed than any of the other Powers have furnished, and a telegram from St. Petersburg states that in consequence of an agreement between Russia and the Powers 6,000 of the Russian garrison at Port

Arthur are to be held in readiness to leave for Tien-tsin, whenever the Russian Minister at Peking shall ask for their assistance or circumstances require their intervention.

Dissensions for the moment have ceased in view of the movement which has impressed all European Governments alike with the danger threatening the interests of Western civilisation. With remarkable unanimity they accept the fundamental fact of the situation, the complicity of the Chinese Government. Mr. Brodrick's speech in the House of Commons on Thursday night endorsed M. Delcassé's explanation of the steps taken by the Legations to call upon the Chinese Government to put an end to a movement which alike imperils the Empire and the interests of the European Powers. Its answer to this appeal is a new arrangement in the Tsung-li-Yamên which increases the Conservative element there and supersedes the President by Prince Tuan, the father of the Crown Prince, who was designated by the Dowager Empress as the successor of the present Emperor; and Prince Tuan is a protector of the Boxers. M. Delcassé's speech represents the prevalent opinion that the only divergence likely to arise in the present juncture would be as to what Power possesses the promptest and most effective means for defending the common interests. But M. Kurino the Japanese Minister in Paris has stated in an interview with a French newspaper representative that the occupation of Tien-tsin would oblige Japan to adopt equally energetic action.

In India the clouds are at last gathering in the right way. The monsoon seems to have burst on the west coast and the showers which often precede the regular rains have fallen in the central parts of the peninsula. Almost the entire area affected by famine lies within the influence of this rain current whose advent is therefore of special importance. There are also indications that the south-east monsoon is opening on the Bengal side but curiously no reports seem to have been received of the burst at Ceylon, which usually heralds the advance of the monsoon up both the eastern and western coasts. Apart from the circumstances which this year render the situation one of intense anxiety, the prosperity of the country depends every year on the character of these annual rains. The date of commencement varies considerably and this season they are already late. A retarded monsoon however is generally a steady and sufficient one. The success of the harvests is determined more by the uniformity of the rainfall than by its total volume.

With the opening of the rains the huge crowds collected on relief works will melt away. The cultivators must flock back to their fields and start the crops on which the future will depend. The whole resources of the State organisation will now be devoted to securing this end and supporting the agricultural labourers till the early staples are ripe. Fortunately crops mature quickly in the moist tropical heat. In six weeks from seed-time the earliest will be getting ready for the sickle and then the tension will really begin to relax. The phase which now commences is not less critical than the earlier stages. The task is to deal with demoralised crowds who cling helplessly to the relief camps after test work has become impossible and the conditions of life in temporary camps certain to induce mortality. The first step for the authorities is to get the people back to their homes where they can resume their usual habits of life and the State relief can be gradually withdrawn. In the meantime the need for further voluntary contribution remains, as Lord Curzon explained in his letter to the Lord Mayor.

The Colonial Office has received from Colonel Willcocks who is in command of the Kumasi relief force a telegram from Prahsu some seventy miles from that place containing the substance of a letter from the Governor of the Gold Coast who is with the Kumasi garrison. It gives news up to 4 June. The most important points mentioned are that Kumasi is garrisoned by 700 native troops under Major Morris who succeeded in entering from the Northern Territories of the Gold Coast: that

Europeans and all the troops are on half rations: that supplies of ammunition are not sufficient to allow of offensive measures and must be husbanded in case of reinforcements not arriving: and that the relief force will be met by great numbers of rebels who have constructed stockades and blocked the ways with trees and other obstacles. The relief force consists of over two thousand various West African forces besides the Gold Coast Constabulary and Gold Coast Police. Its advance has been retarded by heavy rains and lack of carriers which has now however been supplied by 3,000 natives from Sierra Leone. The Admiralty is said to be preparing five sloops of war and shallow-draft gunboats for service in the West African rivers.

The German Emperor on the 12th instant was at Eisleben celebrating with the miners of Mansfeld the 700th anniversary of the opening of the copper mines. On the same day the Reichstag held its last sitting of the Session and passed the financial bills which make of the Navy Bill an accomplished fact. To nothing in the Emperor's reign is he more likely to have been referring than to the success of the Navy proposals, when at Eisleben he recalled the motto of a former Count of Mansfeld which is one of the titles now borne by himself. He said "It is this motto 'Nevertheless' which I have taken as my guide in life when insurmountable difficulties have confronted me." At various stages the Bill seemed threatened with defeat by the particularist groups. We have several times for example mentioned the demands of the agrarians which would have involved the Government in tariff wars. This phase of the contest is recalled by the fact that at the same sitting there was passed along with the Navy Bill one empowering the Government to extend for another year the commercial privileges of the most favoured nation to England. And if animosity against England has not been without influence in passing the Bill, it was an additional source of difficulty to a government determined not to be tempted into any demonstration of pro-Boer sympathy.

The cochers of Paris have decided not to go on strike after all, but, in revenge, behave with an impudence and insolence that cannot easily be described. Though their masters have slightly raised the daily rent of a cab and horse the men could, if they liked, make more than they ever have in their life—but they refuse to be reasonable and charge the most exorbitant sums for only a short drive. Crawling along the boulevards they glance to and fro—shabby people may signal in vain, the bourgeois may gesticulate hysterically, but the cocher passes them by. He must survey his monde first; then, if satisfied, name a sum, and so he only picks up stray fares. Were he to be content with the usual tariff his carriage would be occupied all day. Sometimes, people jump into his cab and insist upon being taken to their destination. Then, the cocher drives furiously over curbstones, or, if he be particularly audacious, makes for the Madeleine instead of the Bastille and vice versa. Parisians protest; the Press complains, but the cochers seem to be more powerful than either. Since no sane man dreams of waiting for an omnibus, cabs are his only means of rapid locomotion; but he will be seen hailing cochers and left coolly behind by them until the Exhibition is closed or until he may make use of the amazing Métropolitain.

Sir John Gorst's speech on the Education Estimates in the House on Thursday night was a model of what such a speech should be. That anything said by the Vice-President on a matter of education should show a thorough grip of the subject will surprise no one who is competent to understand what Sir John Gorst says; but the right appreciation of the true perspective of the matter, which stamped the whole speech, was especially satisfactory. It was the speech of an educationist as against a politician or a crammer. Naturally, therefore, the burden of the speech was the making of teachers and inspectors; for on the teachers and inspectors hangs the whole success or non-success of elementary education. We propose to examine the points raised by Sir John in detail next week. At the opposite pole

was Mr. Samuel Smith, who can see nothing in an education debate but an opportunity for creating ecclesiastical prejudice. It is satisfactory that his motion to reduce the Vote was supported by only 46 members.

Opposition to the Factories and Workshops Bill will certainly not be conciliated by the efforts of the Home Office to explain points and remove the misapprehensions which, it alleges, have led the London Trades Council and the Women's Trade Union League to pass their resolutions of uncompromising hostility to the Bill. The reply of the labour organisations clearly shows that the question whether or not they have fallen into these extensive misunderstandings of the "intentions," which will guide the Home Secretary in his promulgation of regulations, is quite irrelevant to their fundamental objections to any Factory legislation which leaves so many important matters to the discretion of the Home Secretary. Those objections are not removed by an attempted distinction between procedure and principle, and they adhere to their fundamental proposition that the regulations which the Home Secretary takes power to issue by administrative orders must be defined by statute. If this method were abandoned the objectors are not disposed to undervalue the improvements in many respects introduced by the Bill, especially as the Home Secretary admits that some of his criticisms of certain proposed changes might be embodied in amendments.

It is impossible to read of the funeral of the third Duke of Wellington without going back in imagination forty-eight years to the burial of the first Duke "with an empire's lamentation." There are not many families who have supplied the nation in the space of a century with a Viceroy of India, two ambassadors, and the greatest captain of the age. The Marquess Wellesley and the first Lord Cowley were brothers of the Iron Duke, whose nephew, the second Lord Cowley, was our ambassador at Paris during the second French Empire. The last Duke was a silent member of both branches of the Legislature: he was fond of sport and of Strathfieldsaye, where latterly he lived almost continuously. The death of Mrs. Gladstone also arouses memories of more than a personal character, memories not so much of private and domestic life as of the great political events connected with Mr. Gladstone's career. Westminster Abbey is the mausoleum of the great and not merely the virtuous and amiable dead, but burial in the Abbey in the case of Mrs. Gladstone has the appropriateness which springs from the close association of her name in the public mind with that of the extraordinary man who was laid there two years ago.

Everything that has happened during the past week ought to have made markets on the Stock Exchange better. The news from Pretoria was as satisfactory as could be wished and in the Far East, though the lives and property of Europeans are in obvious peril, all fears of complications have passed away, as the Great Powers are acting together with the harmony produced by a common danger. At the same time the Bank rate has been reduced from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 3, money is cheap and plentiful, and the carry-over disclosed a small speculative account. All these are the healthy conditions that precede or accompany a rise in prices. But Capel Court is the home of paradox, and for some mysterious reason the buying is so "quiet" that it is not felt. Rand Mines, for instance, the bell-wether of the Kaffir flock, have fluctuated between $40\frac{1}{2}$ and $39\frac{1}{2}$ and on the week the general list shows little or no change. In the Westralian market there were signs at the beginning of the week of a little more activity and cheerfulness, Lake Views rising to 11 $\frac{1}{2}$, but yesterday dulness again crept over business. American rails have been under the influence of contradictory rumours about the crop prospects, and consequently sagged backwards and forwards. As we anticipated, the special meeting of the London County Council on Tuesday was followed by the issue of their loan of £5,000,000, at 97 $\frac{1}{2}$, a price which naturally insured its success, as was proved by the closing of the list early on Friday morning, and the stock has since been quoted at 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ premium. Consols improved slightly, and were yesterday at 101 $\frac{1}{8}$.

THE CAPE CRISIS.

IT was certain from the beginning that the superficial harmony that has been preserved in Cape politics during the war could not last. It was certain that some definite issue would present itself, which, not admitting of compromise, would be the signal for a general break up of the peace. That issue has now arisen exactly in the form one would have expected, and the only surprising feature about the whole political crisis is that it has been staved off so long. That the leader of a Colonial party, long out of sympathy with the Imperial point of view, should have been able during many months, when that point of view was being vindicated by actual war, to remain in office without alienating either his political followers or his Imperial leaders, is at once a remarkable tribute to the man and a matter for thankfulness to the Empire. Thus stated, Mr. Schreiner's position sounds opportunist, but it has been the reverse. Had he been Imperial with the Imperialists and disloyal with the Dutch, his régime could never have lasted as it has done. In the atmosphere of mutual party suspicion, in the searching light of concentrated public opinion, he would have been found out long ago. Indeed, Sir Alfred Milner's presence alone would have made that game impossible. So far as we know, there is but one act or utterance of Mr. Schreiner that gives countenance to the opportunist theory of his policy, and that is his declaration of a desire to keep the Colony neutral. We agree with Sir Howard Vincent that Mr. Schreiner cannot justly be censured for his action in the matter of the importation of arms, or for his failure to provide for Kimberley. At least in the latter case the charge could only be one of imperfect foresight, not of bad faith. But the neutrality speech was certainly unfortunate and ought never to have been made, though we believe it was not meant in the spirit in which it was very naturally taken. It was silly, because colonial neutrality was constitutionally impossible; it was also inconsistent with Mr. Schreiner's own action in facilitating to the utmost the despatch of troops through the Colony. Indeed, Mr. Schreiner's subsequent conduct has negatived the disloyal construction of those very ambiguous words, and we refer to them now only to show that in our estimate of his services to the Empire, we have not overlooked what may be said on the other side. As it is, we believe that in the light of recent developments we are not going too far in saying that the late Premier, under the guidance and strong support of the High Commissioner, has very probably saved the Colony from a general Dutch rising. Had the Bond party been led at the beginning of the war and during the few weeks previous by a disloyalist in the position of Prime Minister, we doubt if such a rising could have been averted: had there been in office a Progressive or English Premier, it might well have come about in his despatch.

However, with an honest man in Mr. Schreiner's position the breaking point had to be reached some day, and that point proves to be the treatment of the rebel Dutch. Quite naturally; for no loyal citizen of the Empire would agree to condone overt rebellion; on the other hand none who looked to Dutch rather than English supremacy could acquiesce in the rebels' punishment, which would irretrievably compromise his position with all the South African Dutch without the Colony. Hence the rupture; Mr. Schreiner with two other members of the Cabinet proposing measures for the special trial and, in the event of conviction, disfranchisement of the alleged rebels, the rest holding out for amnesty, which is condonation. In some circumstances, of course, amnesty might not be condonation, but in the present state of affairs in South Africa, and coming from the Bond group, it would be taken as such by all parties, and indeed could mean nothing else. The present outcome of the deadlock is the resignation of the Schreiner Ministry.

Three courses are now possible; a Bond Ministry without the Schreiner element, a Progressive Ministry, a coalition between Mr. Schreiner's group and the Progressives, under Mr. Schreiner as Premier. It appears that Sir Gordon Sprigg is now attempting to form a Progressive Ministry; but his success is by no

means so certain as to make it idle to consider which of the three possible courses offers the best chances both for Imperial and South African interests. In such an inquiry, it is necessary continually to remind oneself that we are not writing on a clean slate; we have nothing so like a clean slate as we have in the Orange Colony and in the Transvaal. For good or for ill, perhaps we should say for ill or for good, Cape Colony has long had, we had rather not say, enjoyed, self-government. They have got the rule of the majority and that rule must be made the best of. However desirable it may seem to eliminate the disloyal element from the politics of the Colony, it cannot be done. In the present disorder and excitement, it is natural to sigh for the substitution of Imperial administration for party politics. In the worry of this life, it may be natural to sigh for the moon! Unhappily, it is usually as idle to try to put the clock back as it is madness to put it on. The party system at the Cape must be made to work somehow. A Bond Ministry pure and simple is now hardly possible. It is unpleasant to think it, but it is abundantly plain that a Bond Ministry would not be a loyal Government; and that would mean the absence of mutual confidence, indeed constant friction, between the Colonial and the Imperial authorities. Such friction would make the working of the political machine at any time difficult, and at the present moment would be disastrous to the resettlement of South Africa, in which, whatever happens, the keynote will be British supremacy.

A Progressive Ministry presents no difficulties of that order; it should produce no friction with the Imperial factor; it would not be out of harmony with the new order in South Africa. But it does present grave difficulties on the other side, while it does nothing to promote the real solution of the present difficulty. In the first place, it is doubtful if a purely Progressive Government would work without Mr. Rhodes, and nothing is less desirable just now than Mr. Rhodes' presence in Cape politics. His work lies elsewhere and he himself well recognises the fact. Mr. Rhodes is quiet; let him be. It would be the worst statesmanship to put any person or party forward that could remind the loyal Dutch, for there are still many such, of the raid. And it must be admitted that the Progressive party at the Cape is still associated in the public mind, however unfairly, with the raid. Another serious objection to a Progressive Government is that it would put the Dutch loyalists, followers of Mr. Schreiner, to the strain not only of leaving their old party, but of supporting their old opponents. That was found a severe test here, when Liberal and Radical Unionists were put not only to parting with their former friends but to the support of a Conservative Government. But the difference between Liberal and Conservative was as nothing compared with the difference between the Bondmen and the Progressives. There the additional and very grave element of race comes in. Unhappily, the two parties in the Cape Colony stand roughly for two races, which is a further and the weightiest objection to an all-Progressive Government. It would tend to stereotype the demarcation of parties on the lines of race; it would be asking the Dutch loyalists to come over to the English party. That is exactly what is not wanted. No arrangement can be welcomed which tends to emphasise a grouping according to race. In fact, Cape Colony wants a new set of parties. The old are effete or tarred. Mr. Rhodes' old party, at once Progressive and largely Dutch, Mr. Rhodes himself destroyed. The Bond has been exposed as disloyal. The present Progressive party is to the Dutch, no matter how loyal and even Progressive, almost impossible; and it is not entirely clean from the raiders' brush.

The one alternative that escapes all these objections is a coalition between Mr. Schreiner and the Progressives. That would make a new Imperialist party, neither Dutch nor English, Bond nor Progressive. It would be a centre for the Bondmen who decline to accept a yoke of disloyalty. In joining the new coalition, they would not be going over to their old opponents; they would not be joining a race group alien in antecedents from their own. We are, of course, aware of the political drawbacks attaching to all coalitions,

but such mechanical difficulties sink into insignificance in comparison of the solid advantages, or at any rate possibilities of advantage, coalition presents at this moment in South Africa. Moreover, the special inconveniences incident to coalition would be largely met by the personal factor in Mr. Schreiner himself, should he be Prime Minister in a coalition Government. Without him such a rearrangement would be more difficult but should not be impossible. There are of course reports of difficulties between this person and that, petty jealousies and so forth, which hamper political machinery everywhere. But if ever there has been an occasion when personal consideration should rise to the common interest, it is now in Cape Colony. One can only hope that personal smallness will resign for a time the large share it usually plays in politics and not least in the party politics of a Colony.

THE PEKING PROBLEM.

FOR the moment the forces of disorder in North China appear to be rampant. Large portions of Pecheli and Shantung are abandoned to rapine, and apprehensions are expressed that the movement may extend. The Executive Government seems to have abandoned its functions, if it has not ranged itself on the side of the aggressors. Rivalries have been sunk in presence of the common danger. The European Chancelleries have given adequate instructions, and the Powers are working cordially together in the emergency as Mr. Brodrick has pointed out. The forces available will prove sufficient, doubtless, to guard the interests immediately at hand. The foreign settlement at Tientsin will be held safe under the guns of light-draught men-of-war and the rifles of marines and local volunteers, and the troops which have been despatched to Peking will probably be sufficient to guard the Legations, and the foreigners who have flocked in for refuge from the mission stations and railway works in the country around. If the danger increases, both Great Britain and Russia are in a position to call up great reserves. Russia has a considerable force available in the Liaotung peninsula, and British India can furnish practically any number of men that are likely to be required. Lives have already been lost and we may hear of other isolated acts of brutality; but we may hope to be spared the news of a disaster such as that which befel the French settlement at Tientsin in 1870. When the work of rescue has been effected, however, and even when order has been restored, the task of dealing with the causes of the evil will remain. The riot of 1870 was the climax of a movement which had also been artificially worked up, and its force seemed to expend itself in that final convulsion. But there was no charge of direct complicity against the Chinese statesmen then in power. The distinctive aspect of the present movement is the prevailing conviction that it finds sympathy and encouragement in the highest quarters, and that is a factor to which regard must be had in seeking effective methods of suppression. It comes, let it be remembered, hardly as a surprise. Foreign residents in China were quick to grasp the significance of the coup d'état by which the Empress and her party usurped power. The considered utterances of the China Association have long been pregnant with warning; and a letter addressed from Hankow to the leading journal of Shanghai, only two months ago, declared "the general consensus of foreign and native opinion to be that the present retrograde movement is bound to result in a great conflagration from which we shall all alike suffer." Letters from foreign and native residents in Shantung have long spoken with alarm of the growth of the Boxer movement, and the evident unwillingness of the authorities to check its misdeeds. The late Governor, Yu Hsien, was accused openly of sympathy with its objects. Yet when Sir Claude MacDonald demanded his recall, after the murder of Mr. Brooks, the Empress received him with favour and appointed him to the Government of Shanse whither—*post or propter*—the Boxer movement is, we are told, showing a tendency to spread. The report of her indulging in theatricals at such a crisis may suggest an inevitable comparison with Nero; but

it suggests much more. If the charge of complicity be admitted—and it will be found hard to evade—the conclusion follows, inevitably, that the best way to suppress the movement is to suppress its authors, and it is a conclusion which has found expression in more than one quarter during the week. The suggestion may seem, at first, like a proposal to swop horses while crossing a stream; but the metaphor does not hold good. The truth is that a blunder has been made, and that the sooner it is rectified the sooner we are likely to regain firm ground. Recognising, as everyone who knows China must do, that its most urgent need is administrative reform, we should have prevented the coup d'état in 1898; the remedy now is to reverse it and see that the Emperor is restored to power. The regard for Chinese independence, which has been alleged as one reason why the United States is disposed to act in the present crisis with a certain reserve, springs without doubt from a consciousness that the "open market for the world's commerce" which Mr. Hay has expressed as a desideratum, can be more easily preserved under an independent Empire than under a China disintegrated into spheres. But if integrity is to be maintained, it must be made possible; and the present régime constitutes an ever-present menace. The Empress' usurpation represents an attempt to check the forces of progress; and something very like chaos has been the result. The logical corollary is that the Powers should agree to release the Emperor from durance and replace him on the Throne. Herein lies the best chance of a prompt restoration of order and the best insurance against the menace of the future. Constituted authority is at present against us. Let us put it on our side. The remarkable letter from which we have been already tempted to quote starts with the exordium that there "are two Chinas; the China of the Manchu Mandarinate and the China of the Chinese people, and these are entirely different worlds. The latter is the real China which has existed these many thousand years and will continue to exist long after the Manchu nightmare which at present dominates it has passed into the limbo of things that were." The Empress represents that Manchu nightmare. The Emperor had cast in his lot with the Chinese. Let us rid the country of its nightmare, and help him to clear out the Augean stable of Peking.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WAR.

THE satisfactory news during the second half of the week has counterbalanced to some extent the annoying incidents of the first. As we have already pointed out, the danger of such extended lines of communication passing through so long a stretch of hostile country is considerable. But happily the risk is not likely to be more than temporary. Now that Natal is at last clear of the enemy, a base at Durban—could the change be effected—would much simplify matters. The principal danger we now have to contend with is the inclination on the part of subordinate commanders to imagine that the war is over, and as a consequence to relax too soon the ordinary though still necessary military precautions.

Pretoria and Johannesburg settled down quietly immediately after their occupation by Lord Roberts. On surrendering the capital General Botha retired eastwards along the Middelburg road for a distance of fifteen miles. At first his force was small, but soon reinforcements reached him and to dislodge him became an absolute necessity. The position was an exceedingly strong one, and in front was practically unassailable. This enabled General Botha—profiting by previous experiences—to occupy strongly his flanks. Lord Roberts' attack was delivered on the 10th. General French with a cavalry and a mounted infantry brigade was sent round to the Boer right, while General Ian Hamilton with a similar force and an infantry brigade went round to their left. Both columns met with considerable opposition. But by 3 p.m. two battalions began advancing towards what appeared the key of the position. That was nearly reached before dark, and there the troops bivouacked. Meanwhile General Pole-Carew's division held the enemy in front.

Though, on account of the exceptional strength of the position, he could not attack, he advanced gradually to support General Ian Hamilton, and eventually reached the line occupied by the Boers the previous night. Again on the 12th Lord Roberts was engaged throughout the whole day. The enemy fought with great determination, and held both their flanks against our cavalry. But General Ian Hamilton, taking with him the Guards brigade, pushed forward and took the hill to his front. This caused the enemy to fall back to a second position eastwards. While affairs round Pretoria were thus proceeding satisfactorily, Lord Roberts found that he had to pay some penalty for his brilliant advance northwards. On 8 June General Forestier-Walker—commanding the communications—reported that the telegraph line to Pretoria had been cut at Roodeval by a body of Boers estimated at 2,000 men with six field guns; Roodeval being forty miles north of Kroonstad. General Kelly-Kenny, the headquarters of whose division was then at Bloemfontein and from whom the report originally came, at once sent reinforcements northwards, as General Walker did too from the troops he had under his command in Cape Colony itself. But unfortunately much mischief had already been done. Roodeval was held by the Derbyshire Militia, and presumably they were without the assistance of guns. They had therefore to meet unaided the attack of the Boer force which cut the communications, and the battalion in question was captured. Meanwhile Lord Roberts, hearing that his communications had been cut, sent a special messenger to Lord Methuen at Heilbron. The latter was ordered to push up with all speed to the railway line. At the same time he also despatched Lord Kitchener with what troops he could spare with orders to push southwards and communicate with Lord Methuen. The latter left Lindley on 5 June. Early on the morning of the 8th he was in action ten miles south of Heilbron, where he met General Colville with the Highland Brigade. Lords Methuen and Kitchener joined hands at Vredefort Road Station—ten miles north of Roodeval and the Rhenoster—and there, under Lord Methuen's command, these two forces gained a complete victory over Commandant de Wet and took possession of his camp. Of course the usual story of the Boers being scattered in all directions is narrated, but considering how slightly such scatterings have hitherto affected the operations of the Boers, no great results therefrom need be anticipated. On the 12th the two forces marched southwards, and after again defeating the Boers, reached Honing's Spruit—where they found everything quiet—and they were expected to reach America Siding early on the 13th. At the same time General Knox moved out of Kroonstad—which Lord Roberts reports to be strongly held—to intercept the enemy. The line between Pretoria and the Rhenoster is now being held in strength, and, as he advances, Lord Methuen will arrange for its protection southwards.

From Natal comes the welcome news that the Colony is at last free from Boers. Lord Roberts and Sir Redvers Buller have been able to render each other considerable assistance. On the 6th General Talbot Coke with the 10th Brigade and the South African Horse seized Van Wyk's Hill. Some resistance was made to his advance, though the casualties happily were few. By the following day two 4.7 and two 12-pounder naval guns were got up the hill; and two 5-inch guns were also placed on the south-western spur of Inkwelo—a few miles south of Majuba. Under cover of these General Hildyard then proceeded to assault the spurs of the range between Botha's Pass and Inkwelo. The attack was as well planned as carried out. The steepest slopes offered no impediment to the advance of our troops; and in the end the Boers, who to the number of 2,000 men were posted in a very strong and carefully prepared position, were outflanked and forced to retire some twenty-five miles to the north-west. No pursuit was made, and on the 9th the force halted to enable supplies to come up. On the 10th they concentrated at the junction of the Klip and Gans Vlei rivers. Opposition from a body of 3,000 men had been expected, but as soon as our heavy guns opened fire, the Boers beat a hasty retreat.

On the following day Sir Redvers Buller's army forced Alleman's Nek—the last defile leading to the Charles-town flats. Here the Boers, with several guns in position, were strongly posted. The 2nd Dorsetshire, to whom fell the lion's share of the fighting, carried the position at the point of the bayonet. On the 12th the force was encamped four miles north of Volksrust five miles over the Transvaal frontier—a proceeding which, coupled with the occupation of Pretoria, made the Boers uneasy as regards their rear: and during the night Laing's Nek and Majuba were evacuated. Meanwhile on the right General Lyttelton had taken possession of Wakkerstroom—twenty miles east of Volksrust—receiving the submission of the town and district on 13 June.

One of the most satisfactory features in the fighting of the last week is the small number of casualties we have had to deplore, and the indication that our Generals have learnt very much since the war began. The Boers, contrary to what might have been expected of them considering the recent achievements, have once again shown unexpected energy. That more raids on our communications may be made, and that more hard fighting may take place in the Eastern Transvaal is certainly likely. But outmanœuvred and out-fought, their resistance cannot be prolonged.

THE FARMER'S OUTLOOK.

IT is dangerous to make a forecast of farming prospects in mid-June, for [the next three weeks are always a critical time and more especially in a backward season. One can never guess what a capricious climate has in reserve; rains that have been for many months below the average may come down in torrents when least desirable; or the relative dryness that has been prolonged through the winter and spring may turn to mischievous drought. The old proverb which says that drought never bred dearth in England dates from the days before scientific drainage; yet even now it is so far true, that wheat strikes its roots deep in search of moisture; but with wheat at twenty-seven shillings, when it barely gives a profit at forty, what was once the farmer's staple crop has almost ceased to be a primary condition. So far from the farmer looking to his rickyard for the rent, the best hope of the man who must speculate for a loss is to snatch as much as possible out of the fire.

We never remember the country in greater beauty than at this moment. The trees are loaded with the most luxuriant foliage; the hedges are already "blind" with trailing flowers; a week or two ago the apple orchards were literally sheeted with pink and white, and happily the growth of the hay, the catch-crops and the meadowgrass has more than kept pace with the ornamental vegetation. The farmer has cheered up a bit and begins to feel more hopeful; but with the disappointments of the winter following last year's protracted drought he has gone through an exceptionally anxious time. If he were not phlegmatic, or philosophical, or hardened to misfortune, in many cases he must have thrown up his hands in despair. We happen to be familiar with districts in the home counties, unusually favoured by soil and climate, where the agriculturist has exceptional strings to his bow; and yet even there the majority of tenants, having exhausted their credit with the local banks, have been running seedsmen with substantial capital into insolvency. They simply cannot pay long-standing bills, even by the desperate expedient of premature sacrifice of stock, and pressure will only force them into bankruptcy. On the other hand, so far as their landlords are concerned, they are masters of the situation. No landlord cares to part with an honest, well-meaning man, for he knows he may go farther and fare worse. Nevertheless the situation is exceedingly strained, and it is painful to realise that through this aggravating winter a multitude of respectable tenants, declining from prosperity towards the horrors of the poor-house, have been holding on by the skin of their teeth.

It was an aggravating winter and all operations were delayed. There was little rain, but incessant moisture: the fields were soft and muddy and the lanes sloughs of

despond; consequently there could be no carting of manure. The farmers seized the golden opportunities when frost hardened the ground, but in the meantime the reduced labour bill was running on. The cold instead of coming in sharp, wholesome bursts was dribbled out upon us. The belated sowings were in unkindly soil with little genial warmth to quicken it. Even lately, with frequent changes in the temperature, there have been few warm showers and till very lately no growing days. Keen winds have generally freshened towards sundown, and there has often been a sharp touch of frost at daybreak. The wheat in many parts looks almost sickly: it straggles and is pale in colour, though not yet beyond the reach of remedy. Nevertheless, even now, it is safe to predict that the yield will be decidedly below the average. Ten days ago we should have been equally pessimistic as to the hay, but with the heat which set in on Sunday we have witnessed a marvellous transformation. Indeed with the kindly showers that had fallen in the previous days, already the progress had been wonderful. The fact is that the ground even in January had never been thoroughly chilled, and though seeds and roots were slow to germinate, they were only waiting fair chances to come with a rush. We cannot expect a luxuriant hay-crop, but if we have genial weather, and there be little damage from thunderstorms, we may be confident of a fairly good one. And it is noteworthy that the lessons of adversity are teaching economical methods. The pretty general adoption of the hay-barn is another means of saving labour, and facilitates securing the growth in condition. The more backward districts will fare the best: for there will be more time to thicken the bottom grasses, which have been far outstripped by the taller plants already coming into flower. In forward districts the first crop will inevitably be light, but the bottom growth will come in usefully as aftermath. The sheltered hayfields have done the best, and graziers with good, rich meadow land have had no reason to complain of want of keep. In many pastures now we see the cattle luxuriating half-knee deep in rank herbage.

Reports as to roots vary greatly, but on the whole are very unsatisfactory. The early-sown mangolds have generally proved a failure, and the worst is that when you have waited to see how mangolds turn out, it is too late to sow a second time. Swedes were cut down by cold winds, and they suffered severely from wireworm and the ravages of that terrible pest, the turnip fly. Potatoes show fair promise in the damper soils, but the outlook for the hops is by no means pleasing: absence of rain always tells against them and already the plants are infested by insects. It is in a season like this that the modern farmer realises to the full the value of catch crops. They often snatch salvation for him out of the very jaws of despair. Rye, trefoil, and vetches have all been flourishing wonderfully: the fields of trefoil in many places are sheets of the most splendid crimson: and the field cabbages have been swelling fast with the recent showers, and will come in very usefully in another three weeks. These catch crops are indeed at all times indispensable to the sheep-farmers of the Downs and on chalk soils, enabling them not only to multiply the sheep on the walks but to send early lambs in good condition to market. Young cattle have been fetching satisfactory prices, and on the whole the lambing time has been excellent. Perhaps the most cheery break in the farmer's rather gloomy outlook is the steadily upward tendency of cattle and the record prices that fat sheep have been commanding. It is long indeed since mutton sold at between 10d. and 11d. a pound sinking the offal. Dairy-farmers have less cause for congratulation: both cheese and butter have been slowly on the down grade: possibly competition in dairying is being overdone, and certainly in first-class dairying the indispensable outgoings are great and the risks considerable. Under the heavy dead-weight of unremunerative wheat, the farmer cannot be expected to feel buoyant. But this season he has the doubtful consolation of indifferent reports from abroad, and with some confidence we may hazard the prediction that wheat is more likely to rise than fall. The Continental

harvests are said to be more backward than our own, and the Hessian fly with other destructive insects has been busy in the United States.

ANGLICANS ON THE ANGLICAN POSITION.

MY recent work "Doctrine and Doctrinal Disruption" having been examined at considerable length by various Anglican critics, I desire to indicate briefly two reasons why the arguments of all of them appear to me to be ineffectual. These critics all fail to meet, in any direct way, the issues raised by me with regard to the Church of England: and they fail to apprehend my meaning with regard to the Church of Rome. As examples of these typical defects, I shall take three rejoinders, which are almost official in their character—that of the Bishop of Ripon, which has appeared in the "Londoner," that of Canon Gore, which has appeared in the "Pilot," and that of a writer, who does not give his name, in the "Guardian."

In dealing with the difficulties which the Church of England experiences in supplying the doctrines of Christianity with any logical or intellectual basis, I explained very clearly what I meant by doctrines—that is to say, certain definite propositions, which, though closely connected with the moral and spiritual life, are in themselves purely philosophical or historical. Of the former, we have examples in the orthodox definition of the Trinity, and in the various explanations given of the nature and operation of the sacraments. Of the latter we have an example in the proposition that Christ was born without a human father. Some people maintain that an assent to neither of these two classes of proposition is essential to Christianity. Others—and these comprise the majority of English churchmen—maintain that an assent to them is an integral part of the true Christian faith. My argument was specifically addressed to Anglicans of the latter class—to Anglicans who—to take one typical doctrine out of many—hold that a belief in the Virgin birth of Christ is a belief which a man cannot reject without ceasing to be a true Christian. Such being the case, every one of my Anglican critics instinctively evades the clear issue raised by me, or becomes more hesitating and vague, the more nearly he approaches it.

Thus the Bishop of Ripon sums up his reply to my criticism of the Anglican position as follows. "The most searching investigation into the records of the past cannot rob us of the light which shines from Him who is the Foundation, as well as the Founder, of Christianity." This is no answer at all to the question with which he professes to be dealing. That question is not whether Christ be a spiritual light or no; but whether, being a spiritual light, His conception was physiologically a miraculous and unexampled portent. This question the Bishop does not even approach. Canon Gore does approach it; but he seems to me to show even more clearly than the Bishop of Ripon how impossible it is to answer it in any satisfactory way, by means of any theory open to the Anglican apologist. How, he asks, is an Anglican, in the present day, to convince himself that this astounding event was a reality? He must, says Canon Gore, begin with so studying the Bible as to "re-convince himself that there is truly a progressive revelation of God." Having thus brought his mind into a specific condition, he must proceed "to feel afresh the irresistible cogency of the evidence for the physical resurrection of Christ;" and having done this, he will then, with proper theological guidance, "probably feel convinced that the fact of our Lord's Virgin birth rests on secure grounds of evidence." If, however, Canon Gore continues, this conviction "is to be justified at all, it is the original evidence that must justify it"—not the subsequent assertion, and the subsequent authority of a Church. Of Canon Gore's argument it is impossible to speak at length here. It begs the very question at issue. I may remind Canon Gore of two sayings of his own. One is, that it is becoming increasingly difficult to believe in the Bible without believing in the Church; the other is, that it is impossible to say what ideas we should form of Christ, if our sole knowledge of Him was

derived from a copy of the Gospels, dug up by antiquaries out of the Syrian sand. His former opinions as to the functions of the Church he seems to have entirely abandoned; for the witness of the Church he substitutes a particular mood of mind into which the individual brings himself; and even when this mood of mind has been produced, all he can say is that a resultant belief in the Virgin birth is "probable." But a yet more important point still remains to be noticed. This particular doctrine was mentioned by me not because of its own importance, but because it is a type of an entire system of doctrines of which it forms a part—such as the orthodox doctrine of the Trinity, and some one or other of the various doctrines of the redemption, of the sacraments, of the priestly office, and so forth—which are integral parts of every kind of doctrinal Christianity. Canon Gore gives no hint whatever of how a belief in these is even probably attainable, by a study of "original evidence," illumined merely by the feelings of the individual. My critic in "The Guardian" is even less satisfactory than Canon Gore. After rejecting Canon Gore's theory of individual illumination as valueless for argumentative purposes, he ends by admitting that the doctrinal position of the Church of England is as logically helpless as I have shown it to be; and the sole answer he offers us is his advice to remember "the truth of a saying of Charles Marriott's, which the late Dean Church so keenly appreciated—'He who enters upon the study of Church history must be prepared for many surprises.'" In other words, my objections are logically quite sound; but for some unspecified reason it is unnecessary to pay any attention to them. Such seems to me to be the sole answer of my Anglican critics to my contentions that the English Church possesses no intellectual means of justifying a belief in any one of these sets of supernatural doctrines, one or other of which sets is held to be essential by every one of its doctrinal parties.

Let me now turn to the manner in which my critics have dealt with my contention that the Church of Rome supplies—and is alone amongst all forms of doctrinal Christianity in supplying—that logical authority for doctrine which the Church of England lacks. Some of my critics—notably the Bishop of Ripon—retort on me by declaring that there is as much difference of opinion in the Roman Church with regard to supernatural doctrine as there is in the English Church. I must here content myself with saying that this assertion is inaccurate; but even were it in any sense true, it would not be true in any sense germane to the present argument. The fundamental contrast between the Roman and all other churches lies not in the fact that there are fewer differences of opinion in the former than there are in the latter; but that there is in the former a body of more complete certainties—a growing and enduring nucleus of doctrines which tends, as time goes on, not to dissolve—as the supernatural doctrines of all other churches do—but to become fuller and more logical. This point my Anglican critics fail altogether to recognise. They might be right in disputing it; but they make their rejoinders quite useless by missing it.

But their failure to understand another of my contentions is still more remarkable. I refer to my contention that the Church of Rome is an organism—a single developing life, which is distinct from the individuals who compose it, and which is characterised, as the individual is, by organic growth, by a single mind, and by a continuous memory. Their failure to grasp this conception is illustrated with special clearness by the Bishop of Ripon. He says that I admit that the Roman Church can be described as an organism merely by way of analogy; and that many other analogies from science may be adopted with greater suitability, which will carry with them a very different set of suggestions. In saying this the Bishop (who evidently understands by "analogy" a mere illustrative metaphor, which implies no substantial identity) not only misrepresents, but actually inverts my meaning. I expressed my meaning by reference to Mr. Herbert Spencer's Sociology; and the fundamental fact on which Mr. Spencer insists is that societies may not merely be called organisms in a metaphorical sense; but exhibit

phenomena of growth, cohesion, and differentiation of parts, which, so far as they go, are actually identical in kind with the analogous phenomena exhibited by the living body of the individual. If the Bishop will study what Mr. Spencer has written on the subject of social organisms, he will find that he has missed the entire point and meaning of my own argument as applied to the Church of Rome.

Both Canon Gore and my critic in "The Guardian" show that they have missed it not less completely. I said that the Church of Rome, as a single undying organism, could claim to be possessed of a single developing mind, and a single uninterrupted memory. Canon Gore replies that the Church of Rome took a long time to remember the doctrine of purgatory. I never contended that all doctrines had been given to the Church by her corporate memory, any more than I should say that the theory of gravitation was directly given in our memories of seeing apples fall. That Christ was born of a Virgin is a doctrine for which the organic Church may cite her corporate memory as a witness. The doctrine of purgatory rests on her faculty of corporate reason, exercised continuously, with the assistance of the Holy Spirit, on the various data with which her early memory has supplied her. Had Canon Gore been able to grasp the conception of the Church as an organism, endowed, like an individual, with faculties mutually assisting one another, he never could have imagined that he was proving this conception to be untenable, by showing it to involve the theory that the organic Church in her maturity discovered in the facts which she remembered to have been taught in her childhood, many more doctrines than she could in her childhood understand. My critic in "The Guardian," whilst rejecting the theory of individual illumination, argues that the initial assent to the reality of the authority of Rome may be condemned as an act depending on individual illumination also. He forgets that there is this difference between them, which I endeavoured to make clear:—That whilst the illuminated Protestant requires a separate act of illumination for each separate doctrine, and whilst the doctrines so reached by different Protestants differ, the initial act of assent to the reality of the authority of Rome carries implicitly in itself all the other doctrines as well; doctrines which, in the case of each individual who makes the act, are the same. My critic could never have committed such an error in argument had he had any true idea of what a social organism means, and what is consequently implied in the conception of a social organism which is peculiar in being guided by a Divine Spirit dwelling in it. He fails to grasp my meaning, precisely as Canon Gore and the Bishop of Ripon fail to grasp it; and this failing seems to me to be common to all the Anglican criticism of my book which I have thus far met with. My Anglican critics deny at great length the force of my negative argument, yet make no attempt to meet it in any definite and direct way. They deny, with even greater emphasis, the force of my positive argument; but not one of them has grasped, as any sociological student would grasp, what that argument means.

I must be permitted to say, in conclusion, that the same observations apply to the courteous and temperate criticism of my book, which has appeared in the SATURDAY REVIEW. If the writer had grasped my meaning with regard to the organic development of Rome, he could never have urged that, according to my principles, the "consensus of the primitive Church is now destitute of value," because I say that it represented the consensus in its earliest stage of development. Would he maintain that the Nicene Creed rendered the Apostles' Creed destitute of value? His failure to grasp my meaning is expressed still more comprehensively in his statement that my views generally are similar to those of Dr. Mivart. The truth is, as any Catholic would be able to tell him, that the view of the Roman Church which I have tried to set forth, is precisely that view of the Church which Dr. Mivart never understood at all.

W. H. MALLOCK.

WOMEN AND WORK.*

THERE is one influence which in its universal bearing upon all classes of women's work forces itself more and more insistently upon our notice. From the service of the most highly educated women, employed perhaps by the State, to that of the most illiterate who are absorbed by the sweated trades is a far cry, but the conditions of their employment are alike governed by the same consideration of marriage. In the one case the consideration concerns chiefly the employers; in the other, and among all industrial occupations, it concerns chiefly the employed: throughout there is felt to be an absence of permanent responsibility, and in different ways this effects the same result.

In the case of the State, and in the higher employments generally, there is a certain handicap upon the employment of women. That employer was not unique who in Mrs. Candee's little book "How Women may Earn a Living," says "I shall never employ a woman in a position of trust again. . . . If a man marries he works the harder; if a woman marries she throws over her position." It is idle to ignore the difficulty, for though often an artificial creation its existence is established in men's minds. Constantly the woman's service is brilliant; generally it is vigorous; it is all, or perhaps more, than is asked while it lasts, but years of training and the acquirement of special knowledge may be wasted in the sudden interruption of marriage, and the penalty is paid in her work's inadequate recognition. In industrial life there is the same possibility—one may say intention—of interruption, and there it governs the purpose of the workers. The factory girl of Birmingham, of Liverpool, of the East End of London is not less intelligent than the agricultural labourer, but on the whole she is even less well organised. It seems not worth her while; her goal is marriage, and it is quickly reached. Her factory work has no part in her scheme of life, yet if its resumption be forced upon her she returns to the conditions of labour which received no serious attention before her marriage, because they seemed to be things of the moment. The one exception to this rule is the female factory "hand" of Lancashire. The Women's trade union League, which exists for the promotion of trade unionism among women, finds that the one class of women it can claim as really satisfactory trade unionists are the textile workers of Lancashire, who look upon their work as permanent and adhere to it after marriage. But, or perhaps for that very reason, home life is of little account. A weaver who can take four looms is in the eyes of her husband, and in her own, a wasted force if she abandons the factory for the home. She has no sense of its responsibilities, of its tremendous opportunities; the training of her children is nothing to her; their education is nothing to her; at a certain age they become wage-earners, and for the first time they are of importance. Every attempt to postpone this age has been bitterly opposed by their parents. Thus women's work presents this dilemma. If work is the business of life the home suffers, if home is the business of life, the work suffers.

As the possibility of marriage is one of the most serious problems which affect the employment of all women, it should be recognised and met. In industrial life it could be met to a great extent by unselfish union for the common good which would look upon industrial work as permanent not as a mere stopgap, or something to be escaped from. Such common effort would bring not only abstract reward but immediate good to every worker; benefit in the future to their children; and in the nearer future, if widowhood or other misfortune compelled return to work, permanent benefit to themselves. Now, it is almost impossible—outside Lancashire—to secure attention to the serious business of industrial life. The jam factory, the rope works, the box factory offers to the majority independence, and a certain quickness of life which is attractive: the disadvantages are grumbled at, laughed at, and accepted.

* "How Women may Earn a Living." By Helen Churchill Candee. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1900. 4s. 6d.
"The International Congress of Women, 1899." Edited by the Countess of Aberdeen. 7 vols. London: Unwin. 1900. 3s. 6d. net each.

The wages of some shillings a week yield a levy to the home support, and probably a subscription to a "feather" club. While that is all which is asked, this class of labour will remain grievously underpaid. To most of the girls it does not matter much, for work is just a temporary matter and the earnings subsidiary. But the consequent starvation wage for those who are without homes or bear the burden of others' support is not realised or not remembered, and the sufferers themselves have no vitality for sustained effort, and little conception of its power. If the thousands of women engaged in factory work throughout the United Kingdom would discount the possible emancipation of marriage, a large part of the labour problem would be solved. Employers, in all but a very few highly skilled trades, are indifferent; they accept rather as men of business the advantages of the situation to themselves. What is wanted is that factory work should be given up on marriage so as to make the home the business of life, but that the work before marriage should be taken as seriously as though it were to continue through life.

Not many of the women who are engaged in professional or commercial work marry, though there is often no reason why their marriage should affect their work. In the factory world the woman is withdrawn from her home for a rigorous and defined period, which absorbs the major part of her day. For the educated woman methods of work are more elastic, and the work itself makes smaller claims upon her time, so that it is often compatible with the conditions of married life. When from the nature of the work the two are not possible or advisable, the present handicap is likely to remain. Let organised effort bend itself to the development of occupations which may be continued after marriage without detriment either to the occupation itself or to the claims of home life. For the bigger task, the organisation of industrial women, the Women's Trade Union League declares itself to be ready. A pitiable wage, a poisoned and perilous living are not necessary facts in industrial life but they present themselves with at least the force of repetition.

The Records of the International Congress of Women which was held last year deal fully with the whole subject of the employments of women, and among a great deal that is not remarkable there are a few really good papers. Whether the Woman's Exhibition at Earl's Court was in any way suggested by the International Congress we do not know. The Exhibition is not perhaps very complete. Exhibitions seldom are, their main object being to afford the public an excuse and an opportunity for an *al fresco* evening—but so far as it goes it may serve to point the moral of some of the papers contained in the Congress Proceedings.

THE RIVIERA DI LEVANTE.

IT never came into my head that a road could have an end to it. Wherever the road has taken me, there was always another road to take me on; that is the charm of roads. But in the Riviera di Levante I had to revise my opinion. Throughout the whole of this tract of country, from Genoa to Spezzia, there is strictly speaking only one way. At certain points in it, at Rapallo for instance or Chiavari, bold dusty thoroughfares, travelled by many waggons with their long strings of mules, strike boldly inland towards the valleys, tempting your feet to follow them wherever they may lead. You follow, and suddenly they bring up short against a hillside set thick with olives; you may press on if you like, but the road, your guide and your assurance, deserts you: it is a mere truncheon of highway, not a link in a network. Not that I object; I have no passion for the thoroughfare. I merely note a peculiarity of the country—this region lying in between sea and hillside or rather consisting of the seaward slope of hills—which is, if you look at it from any point of vantage, one of the most thickly set with houses that the eye can behold. Out of all these houses big and little not one in three is directly approachable on wheels. And, as you learn from the inscription over the Ruta hill tunnel, ten miles south of Genoa, even the one road that exists is a new affair. Victor Emmanuel "restored it toward the north,

toward the south constructed it." In the past altogether, as in the present to a great degree, the life of the region flowed not in highways but in byways, through those narrow tracks which make the distinguishing feature of the country, as they climb up and up among the terraced oliveyards.

It is a delightful country to walk in, for you can go anywhere and everywhere. Wherever you strike a hillside there is always a path leading up within a hundred yards of you to the right or left. It may be six feet broad and enclosed between stone walls; these are the local highways, the main issues from the towns: it may be so narrow that a man cannot carry two buckets of water down it but is forced to a double journey; but always it is built in stone steps and the steps are worn with the curious half-pathetic sculpture wrought by the passage of innumerable feet. Here and there it is a really noble piece of work like the broad firm-set track that leads up to the Madonna di Monte Allegro, winding airily above the oliveyards along the mountain ridge, and planted on either side with *ilexes*, huge in the stem as our forest oaks, yet itself long centuries older than the oldest *ilex*; slanting this way and that to make things a little less laborious for the sick who drag their bodies up two thousand feet to the miracle-working picture in the convent church. But everywhere, great or small, these lizard-haunted paths have a strange beauty and fascination. They tempt you upward and onward; at any instant, if the ascent grows tiresome, you can strike to right or left along the terrace of the olives and when you have rested in this way you will meet another path to beguile you into climbing still a little higher. For the truth is—and that is the weak point about the country—they do not beguile you into going down. If only the descent to Avernus were paved as those paths, there would be no standing-room in Paradise. It needs strong ankles and well-hardened feet not to be sorely tired by merely going down the *salita* that leads to San Fruttuoso.

San Fruttuoso is the extreme type of these little places—a surviving representation of what they all must have been before Victor Emmanuel came road-making. It lies on the seaward face of the Monte Fino, the great headland which shuts the view southward from Genoa, and makes the northern boundary of the Tiguglian Gulf. The road from Genoa leaves the coast at Camogli; from Rapallo one of the truncheons I spoke of runs along the bay through Santa Margherita and Porto Fino; but San Fruttuoso is an hour's row from either Porto Fino or Camogli: if you do not get to it by sea you must come over the mountain, and for those who travel for pleasure all the better. From the Monte Fino you see northward the long sweep of coast that is the Riviera di Ponente and southward the lovely curve of the bay to Capo di Venere behind which Spezzia shelters: inland there spreads the wonderful wave-like series of the Apennines. Talk of the Alps: mountains never have their full beauty unless the sea too is in the picture; and the Apennines have a beauty that is all their own. Nothing is savage, wild, bizarre, or extravagant in their outline; you would say they had been composed with a design, so subtly do the lines interlace, balance and repeat themselves. And the landscape has the human interest stamped upon it; in every fold of the intricate valleys there shows a village, on the crest of every little pointed hill that rises to fill the gap between two converging slopes, a slender church tower shoots up, as in the background of old Florentine pictures. The impressionist art would never have been born in Italy where the delicate grace of line outdoes even the beauty of colour, where everything is distinct, graceful, finely finished; where there are no reticences, no mysteries of shadow, and the very hills, far as you can see them, display with the relief of light and shade modellings fine and chiselled such as sculpture could hardly rival. Decidedly to see all that you see from the crest, it is worth climbing the Monte Fino. But when you are there you will not see San Fruttuoso. A slope all but precipitous falls seaward, and two thousand feet below, you can just distinguish the grey foliage of some olive-trees telling of cultivation. Down you go, through a tangle of juniper bushes and a kind of heath that grows tall in separate shrubs bearing a white blossom; and presently you strike the path. You

cannot miss it for it follows the only possible slope. And then begins your martyrdom. Halfway down, when you begin to reach the first house and the highest growing olives, probably a handsome barefooted lad will meet you with offers of a boat. The population does not seem to know its advantages since the average walker would for sheer weariness sooner pay a heavy ransom once he is at the bottom than climb up that formidable hillside—and yet they make modest demands. As for the village, if one can call it so, you are in it as soon as you see it, so oddly does the path wind down the stream course: and a strange village it is. Here was once an abbey—belonging to the Dorias—indeed the Dorias still own the place—and here the Dorias buried their dead as far back as the thirteenth century. In the little old church where hang little models of rigged boats, ex votos of the fishermen, there is a stone coffin superbly carved in high relief with figures of the fifteenth century; but the tombs are in a vault off the little cloistered court: dignified marble structures, some even beautiful, with dignified Latin inscriptions. But the little cloister is heaped up with fishing nets and out of the windows in the upper gallery between the fluted marble columns shy children peep. Part of the convent buildings is now an inn—and a clean pleasant little inn it proved—with its terrace right above the sea. And when you take your boat and row out you see nothing at all of this village, where there live perhaps a hundred souls in all, but the single group formed by the old abbey rising in one block from the sea; the boats are drawn up and slung under the very arches on which the convent rests. It is the oddest most unsuspected corner of human life that I have ever seen; for, once you leave the landing stairs, three minutes pulling either way brings you round a corner of the cliff and the whole is lost to sight. You might well run in a boat before a free wind along that coast and never see the old sanctuary of the Dorias; for unless you happened to look landwards at the right moment there would seem to be no break in the huge wall of precipice, golden in the sunlight, where stone pines cling in blue-grey masses and where the peregrines breed. It must be a strange life these folk live, with not a square yard of flat land to stand on, constrained for their commerce with the world either to climb or sail; yet they seemed prosperous and happy with the yield of their nets and their olive-trees, and there are not many places where I would sooner pass a few days of summer than at that pleasant inn among these fishermen whose boats find shelter under the foundations of their church and whose dwelling places are of a piece with the sacred walls.

STEPHEN GWYNN.

THE SHAME OF COVENT GARDEN.

THE "Dusk of the Gods" will yet be Wagner's most popular work. Its preposterous length is a serious obstacle; but I may be permitted to suggest that there is a very easy way of shortening a thing that is too long—you may cut a piece off either end or out of the middle. This plan is not precisely novel, of course; but the Wagnerite for undiscovered and indiscoverable reasons thinks it should not be tried on Wagner's operas. It has been tried; last week it was not tried at Covent Garden and it is never tried at Bayreuth; but the next generation will witness—take my word for it—the "Ring" cut as the regular habit at Covent Garden, if some musical fanatic has not set fire to Covent Garden before then, and at Bayreuth also. If the "Dusk of the Gods" is cut at Bayreuth I shall certainly grumble; for though the tremendous first act, lasting two hours, is rather more than a slight tax upon the most ardent of us in the heat of a Bavarian August, the music is worth the pains; and the remaining two acts are not excessively long. But if it is not cut next year at Covent Garden I shall also grumble, for an opera lasting five hours and twenty minutes is more than mortal can stand twice in a season in Covent Garden circumstances in June and July. The cuts are easily made. Whenever two people meet in the "Ring" they immediately set to and tell one another the whole story of the theft of the gold, of the abduction of Sieglinda, and all the rest of it; and the obvious

thing is to use the pruning knife upon the passages which—words and music—have been most frequently heard. Something will be lost, and a great deal will be gained—the possibility of hearing with careful attention and without intolerable fatigue what is perhaps the most superb music-drama in the world.

The most superb music-drama in the world—I don't think it will be necessary to alter that judgment in my lifetime. Mr. Shaw derides the "Dusk of the Gods" as a mere opera; and some other critics consider the score too involved, recondite, too difficult to follow, "too much in Wagner's later manner." As a matter of fact, the drama is grandly schemed, and the music is made up of huge, noble, simple, sweeping measures as easy to follow as a Handel oratorio. No more splendid subject for a drama can be dreamed of: the passing away of a whole race, indeed the winding up of a universe, a sort of Pagan Last Judgment. And the music: there are things in the "Dusk of the Gods" equal to anything to be found in any other of the music-dramas. The wondrous spring-freshness, the sense of the open-air and moonlight and starlight, and storm and angry winds shrieking through the pines, which one finds in "The Valkyrie," are not here; but they are not wanted: the music for the dawn of a hopeful spring day and for the blustering storms of spring is not the music for the sombre splendours of an autumn sunset. In "The Valkyrie" all is young and fair and full of promise; in "Siegfried" we have the summer ripeness and the fulfilment of the promise; in the "Dusk of the Gods" the curtain drops on the bare fields where the last gleaners have been: the harvest is gathered, the winter is near, and the cold winds wander cheerlessly over the barren world. There is not a hint of it in the words of the play; but that is what Wagner must needs have felt when he surveyed the whole story of the coming and going hence of his race of Völsungs; and that is what he has put into his music. It is a stupendous Lament: not the lament of a man who is broken by despair, but of one who acquiesces in the only course things could possibly have taken, and is yet filled with sorrow for changes of the world and for all the tragedies that the changes bring to those who live in the world—who are born, and suffer, and perish. There are bright patches—the duet of the Brunnhilda and Siegfried, and the duet between Siegfried and Gutruna afterwards; but over all is the sense of impending tragedy, and the bulk of the music is devoted to a direct expression of it. The Norn scene with which the opera opens strikes the keynote at once; in Siegfried's Journey to the Rhine the radiance of the scene between him and Brunnhilda gradually fades away and gives place to the sinister Hagen music; the second act begins with the music of the powers of snarling hatred, and with the one exception I have named—the duet of Siegfried and Gutruna—the act is full of the sense of tragedy and death; the wailing song of the water-nymphs in the last act prepares wonderfully for the summing up of the whole "Ring"—the March which is played as Siegfried's body is carried away over the mountains through the moonlight dimmed by the evening mists. Brunnhilda's gorgeous last scena restores the balance of things in a marvellous way: it brings sanity and order into the wild carnival of bloodshed. For love she leaves a world not made for love; the gates of hell do not wholly prevail; the curtain drops while her love-melody sings out sweetly over all the racket and disorder of the ruined world: even if hate and death are victorious, this thing, love, has also been; and for it, it is worth while to have lived. It is Wagner's way of singing that love, which is life and the continuance and preservation of life, is stronger than death; and he sings it to one of the loveliest tunes that ever entranced human ears.

As for the rendering at Covent Garden last week, it was so atrocious that I wish to get rid of it as briefly as is possible. It was bad in a peculiarly annoying way. The whole evening Mottl was working his very hardest and his best to make the most of the music; without exception the singers were doing their best, Ternina rising to superb heights for moments; even the chorus behaved less like a chorus than usual. But the stage management was resolved that things should not go well: it played Alberich to the Wotan of the

artists; like Hagen it blasted all that was beautiful and strong and made for righteousness, and it shared the general destruction and humiliation of the end. For minutes—when the stage management was powerless to interfere—one thought that at last the bungles were done with: some scenes, such as the duet between Siegfried and Brunnhilda, the Oath scene in the second act, and Hagen's call to the vassals, were simply glorious. One congratulated oneself on being in for a fine evening. And then suddenly a scene had to be changed, some alteration had to be made in the lighting—some trifling thing involving the smallest conceivable exercise of brains had to be done—and lo! one's hopes were shattered, the illusion was dispelled, one realised with a shock that one was indeed at Covent Garden. Again and again this happened. For instance, after the Norn scene the dawn, instead of being spread over several minutes to fit the mysterious and lovely music written for it, came up with a flash like the flash of lightning. When the curtain rose after Siegfried's Journey to the Rhine, poor Gutruna was discovered in her place without Hagen and Gunther. She vainly signalled to Mottl in her distress; Mottl, with (as I suppose) a cold perspiration breaking out all over his person, could do nothing but stop the music until the missing gentlemen came in, one, apparently, by the chimney and the other from the left wing. The sunrise in the second act was as curious as the first. The river in the last act was an abomination, and the mermaids had not even been taught to swim, although I am sure the ladies might easily have learnt the correct motions by watching Mr. Bonci some evening when he got down to the footlights. The funeral pyre was a miracle of inanity, though it had the surprising merit of seemingly setting fire to the river and the hall and the circumambient air while not itself burning, until a gentleman in his shirtsleeves made a rush for it behind and probably by a judicious use of sarcasm stung it into flaming up intermittently. When Gunther is killed the stage directions are that he lies on the stage; when Gutruna learns that Siegfried was never her husband the stage directions are that, fainting, she gropes for her brother's body: she is absolutely alone and in her agonised wretchedness goes instinctively to him as the only thing with whom the smallest tie remains. It is a most pathetic touch, and a touch one knows to be absolutely true and untheatrical. However, Gunther on being killed went out, and afterwards Gutruna went out to faint also. Finally, when the hall of the Gibichungs ought to fall and Hagen ought to go into the river after the Ring a black cloth was let down and then raised to show us the most farcical tableau I have ever seen: the hall in ruins, a few men shaking a lump of canvas to represent waves, and on the back-cloth a kind of magic-lantern picture of Wotan sitting in flames. To this day no man can say what became of the Ring; I myself was accused by an angry critic in the theatre of having taken it and can testify that that is not the case. I say nothing of the ravens, save that they were amongst the most extraordinary wildfowl of the Covent Garden natural history museum. Now I neither know nor care who is to blame for these things. There may be excuses for particular men; it may be that the parsimonious management of this commercial enterprise (which prides itself on its thirty-three per cent. dividend) would not pay for a sufficient number of men to look after things. The audience has nothing to do with this: the audience paid thirty shillings per stall, and the audience did not get the worth of its money. With one poor ha'porth of brains to direct the affair and a few men to carry out directions every bungle might have been avoided. Covent Garden is irredeemable and one ought to be glad not to be connected with so scandalously inartistic, so barefacedly commercial, a concern.

J. F. R.

DAY-BEFORE-YESTERDAY DRAMA.

HAD Mr. Gilbert been born into the world twenty-five years later than he was, his *Pygmalion* would be a very different person from the *Pygmalion* whom he did actually create in the 'seventies. For in recent years we have much concerned ourselves with the

psychology of artists, and have drawn certain conclusions, formulated certain laws, in the light of which Mr. Gilbert's *Pygmalion* stands forth absurd and unreal, an embarrassed anachronism. Were he a mere dabbler and duffer in sculpture, his temperament, as expressed in the speeches given to him by Mr. Gilbert, might perhaps pass muster. But he is, on the contrary, a great master in his art, brimful of genius. This fact is essential to the scheme of the play. Let us see by what means Mr. Gilbert impressed it on the 'seventies. That great artists are arrogant fellows was known already, and the keynote of arrogance is struck with *Pygmalion*'s first entry. An art-patron has sent his slave to bid the artist wait on him. *Pygmalion* is furious. So far, so good. But listen to the manner of his fury!

"Tell him from me that, though I'm poor enough, I am an artist and a gentleman."

Now, if there is one fact we have learnt about great artists, it is that their arrogance is founded solely on their mastery in art. Whether they be gentlemen or not is a question which never troubles them for an instant. If a great artist were to say "I am a gentleman," he would say so merely as one stating a fact; it would never occur to him that the fact could at all enhance his self-esteem or the esteem in which others held him. Also, he would be telling a lie; inasmuch as great art and gentility (I use the word in its proper sense) are things which are not, and cannot be, combined. (This, indeed, is another fact which has been discovered since the 'seventies: that except in the narrow sense of birth, great artists never are gentlemen, and that they are more often not so even by birth, since the strenuous vitality which is needed for great art can hardly be drawn but from peasant-stock.) *Pygmalion*, having already made himself incredible, proceeds to make himself more so. He declares to his wife Cynisca that wealth is the only thing he can work for. Even the 'seventies must have shied at that. At any rate, Cynisca does. She cannot understand such words

"from one whose noble work it is
To call the senseless marble into life!"

This is *Pygmalion*'s cue. He utters a long-pent rigmarole to the effect that he can only copy life, not create it, and curses

"those proud gods,
Who say, 'Thou shalt [*sic*] be greatest among men,
And yet infinitesimally small."

Of course, this is utterly absurd. A great sculptor may torment himself with his failures to attain absolute perfection in his form; but he would never find fault with the form itself, never wish to outstep its glorious limitations. . . . You think me pedantic, a breaker of butterflies on wheels. "Mr. Gilbert's play," you point out, "is a sheer fantasy. His aim in the first act is to provide some motive for the animation of the statue. You do not, we imagine, object to the idea of an animated statue?" "Not in the least," I answer. "But," you rejoin triumphantly, "statues never really come to life. Why worry because Mr. Gilbert makes *Pygmalion* cry out against the cold stone of Galatea? It is a quite legitimate step in what is, we repeat, a sheer fantasy." Having allowed you to work out your theory to the end, I hasten to contradict it. No fantasy is good unless it be founded in solid reality. None revels more than I in the impossible, but it must spring from the possible, else it is without meaning and gives no illusion. That is an æsthetic truth which any worthy weaver of fantasies would admit. Mr. Gilbert would admit it. Working in the 'seventies, before men had begun to take an interest in the souls of artists, he, doubtless, imagined that he had made his *Pygmalion* such as a great sculptor might be, and that the ensuing fantasy was well founded. Were he a young man, writing the play to-day, he would have profited by the accumulated data of recent years, and would have cast the legend into quite another scheme. The only profit one can derive from seeing or reading the play as written then is to speculate what it would be like were it written now.

Not that I would advise Mr. Gilbert to revise his play on the lines laid down by me. Had I been at his side in the 'seventies, I should have tried hard to dissuade him from tackling the idea of an animated

statue, even though I might then have accepted his notion of a great artist's character and proclivities. For that particular idea is poetical, and Mr. Gilbert, for all his metrical skill, is as unpoetical as any man who ever lived. He has a sense of humour; and there is, of course, no end of fun to be got out of an animated statue. But it could only be got by a humourist who was also a poet, for it lies in the contrast between the prosaic, complicated circumstances of actual life and the poetic, elementary simplicity of the creature woken to them. If the creature be a minx, like Mr. Gilbert's Galatea, with the kind of poor-girl-didn't-know-you-know innocence which is familiar to us in the Music Halls, the fun of the situation is lost utterly. However, the fun is a secondary matter: it is the poetry of the idea which one wants to have developed, and, as I have just suggested, Mr. Gilbert is the last man who ought to have undertaken the job. When he did so, he saw, no doubt, that the play ought to be mainly poetical. The statue was to awaken and be a woman, and to love him who had fashioned her, and to be loved by him; and he was to suffer evil through love of her, and she, knowing there was no other way of saving him, was to set herself again upon her pedestal and be again a stone. What a chance for a really poetic play! Down sat Mr. Gilbert, in all his power of writing correct blank-verse. But alas! not one spark of poetry would fly from a single iamb. Nor, try as he would, could he see the idea except through a tangle of those complications which were so popular in 'seventy farce. Galatea is told that a soldier is a man who is hired to kill human beings. On comes Leucippus (a soldier, and the prospective brother-in-law of Pygmalion), holding a fawn which he has just shot. Galatea thinks the fawn is a human being, and upbraids the murderer. Exit Leucippus, with fawn. Enter his betrothed. Galatea makes her believe that Leucippus has murdered a woman. Re-enter Leucippus. More cross-purposes, till he, exasperated, exit declaring he will have no more of her. Later, much time is expended in order to lead up to this situation: the elderly art-patron discovered by his wife with his arm round Galatea's waist. Thus, in one way and another, most of the wearisome rag-tag and bobtail of farce is dragged in to pass the time which Mr. Gilbert had meant to spend in developing the poetry of the idea. Not less tedious are the scenes in which the author, pulling himself together, devotes to the relations between Galatea and Pygmalion. "Relations" is the very word. Galatea that "serio," makes advances towards Pygmalion. He is, at first, inclined to flirt. Then he remembers that his wife (who has gone on a journey) would make herself unpleasant if she found him out. He hustles Galatea away, making arrangements—observe the invincible delicacy of the dramatist!—that she shall sleep in his sister's house. Next day, his wife comes back. She finds him out, and . . . but the last part of the play is of a piece with the first. If you have never seen or read the play, see it or read it now, and you will join me in thanking the Fates who, soon after it was written, sent Sir Arthur Sullivan along and saved its author from writing others like it.

On the whole, I would advise you to read the play rather than to see it. One can skip a book without troubling anyone, whereas it is selfish to dodge in and out of a theatre where the mimes are doing their best and most of the audience is anxious to take out its money's-worth in attention. If you do go to the Comedy, you will not see a particularly brilliant performance, though you will see a performance better than the play deserves. I do not think it is merely because I had been prejudiced in Miss Steer's favour by Mr. Gilbert's rather mean letter about her to the papers that I thought her performance really quite tolerable. Her voice and manner are not those of a simple creature just woken into life, but they are guilelessness itself in comparison with the part as it is written. Moreover, she acts with no little grace. Miss Repton, as Cynisca, reproduced to a nicety the mannerisms with which Miss Julia Neilson made her début, and which she has gradually got rid of. The rest of the mimes do not stand out in my memory, except (by reason of his cloddishness in the part of Pygmalion) Mr. Fuller Mellish.

MAX.

A RECUSANT.

FORGIVE me all the graves
I stand upon, forgive me this my treason,
Your weary heir, who craves
A refuge from his reason.

Hail to thee, Spirit strange!
I question not thy will, not understanding,
But pray for an exchange
To something less commanding.

They work, though unaware,
The fire, the frost, and all unconscious creatures,
Even as we, who wear
Thy trouble on our features.

Then, if it be not guilt,
Grant me a quieter post in thy dominions;
To work in as thou wilt,
But have no more opinions.

ROYAL INSURANCE.

MANY important companies combine the business of Fire and Life insurance. There are many advantages in this combination. The offices and the agency staff are available for both purposes, and the connexions formed by one department are frequently useful to the other. Among Fire insurance companies the Royal in point of magnitude occupies the premier place. In 1899 its Fire premiums amounted to £2,026,533 an amount which is somewhat less than it has sometimes been. In Fire insurance business, however, a decrease in premium income is not infrequently an advantage, since it indicates that undesirable risks have been declined in obedience to the teaching of experience. The difficulty with a first-class Fire insurance company is more that of selecting the properties to be insured than of obtaining proposals for insurance. Everybody knows that an office like the Royal issues policies on the usual terms, and that the security it offers is unquestionably abundant.

Last year was, however, an unsatisfactory one from the point of view of Fire insurance, and many companies conducted their business at a loss. In this, as in everything else, the law of average prevails, and the effects of this law can only be seen when the results of a number of years are taken together. Any one year may be unduly favourable, any other year the reverse, and 1899 was a conspicuous example of the prevalence of adverse conditions. The result so far as the Royal was concerned was a claim ratio which amounted to 62 per cent. of the premium income, to which must be added 35 per cent. for commission, expenses, and taxes, leaving a margin of only 3 per cent. of the premiums for profit on the year's trading. Were this the normal state of things Fire insurance would offer no attraction to investors, and the loss to the community through the non-existence of substantial companies would be greater than can be easily estimated. The average profit of British Insurance companies for the past ten years has been approximately 8 per cent. of the premium income, and the average profit of the Royal for the past six years, including 1899, has been about 9 per cent. of the premiums, a return which while satisfactory to the shareholders is one with which insurers have every reason to be well satisfied.

The experience of such a year as 1899 affords convincing evidence of the folly of those advocates of Socialism who clamour that municipalities should effect their own insurance. It is improbable in the extreme that a complicated business like Fire insurance could be successfully managed by a committee appointed by the unintelligent voters at municipal elections, and though a corporation might go on for many years without experiencing a substantial loss it is practically certain that a time must come when, to the detriment of the

ratepayers, their calculations would be upset and the folly of municipal insurance be made manifest.

The Life department of the Royal maintains the steady progress that we have learnt to expect from British life offices of magnitude and stability. For the past thirty-five years it has maintained its bonus at the rate of 30 per cent. per annum, and although this result has sometimes been excelled by other companies it exhibits a steady maintenance of excellence, which is very attractive, and is characteristic of life assurance at its best. The liabilities have been valued by stringent mortality tables combined with interest at 3 per cent., some provision being made towards strengthening the reserves at the next valuation, when, it is hinted, the mortality tables now being prepared by the Institute of Actuaries may be employed. The volume of new business has been well maintained, the total premium income shows a substantial increase upon previous years, and the Life and Annuity funds have increased by £126,000. These are all clear indications of steady progress on sound lines, and prove that the vast interests under both Life and Fire policies entrusted to the directors and managers of the Royal are being looked after on sound lines with unquestionable skill. The total assets of the company exceed ten millions, and the balance-sheet shows how well they are invested, while the rate of interest obtained upon them indicates that they are yielding a lucrative return.

CORRESPONDENCE.

CHURCH SCHOOLS AND SPANISH BIGOTRY.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

9 Evelyn Gardens, S.W., 8 June, 1900.

SIR,—In your article of 2 June, which I have just seen, you refer to the part I took in the discussion on Mr. Samuel Smith's Amendment. As you state that I took a course unworthy of an educated man, and made remarks which I knew to be irrelevant, "just to flatter the bigotry of my constituents," I think you will perhaps allow me to say a word which may modify your judgment. During the debate Mr. Smith read from a book written by the late Principal of one of the Training Colleges, purporting to be the substance of lectures delivered to the students, and recommended for use in other colleges. The following are the passages which Mr. Smith read from this book:—

"There can be no doubt that schism is as deadly a sin against God and his law of unity, as are murder and adultery against the sixth and seventh commandments. And so they are classed by the Apostles. Dissent does in fact charge God with stupidity, or cruelty, or both." "Dissent does implicitly make God to be the author of evil." "Dissent does naturally and inevitably pave the way to Atheism." "It follows as a matter of course that Sacraments as ministered by Dissenters cannot be anything more than a sacrilegious outward show, and as much a mockery and a delusion as Grace without meat, a shell without a kernel, or a knife without a blade. The Bible is emphatically the Church's Book to which Dissenters have no more right than have deserters to the Drill and Text-book of the army from which they have seceded." "The soul-starvation thus resulting has naturally caused that sad loss of moral and spiritual tone so painfully conspicuous among the various sects, and has reduced them from Religious Societies to mere political clubs for the dissemination of unbelieving Radicalism, the creed of ignorance and vice, of knavish demagogues and the criminal classes, an incendiary system which aims at the good of the rich, not the good of the poor, and which yet, in their envious hatred of the Church, Dissenting leaders are not ashamed to propagate as Gospel truth to carry out their godless purposes."

When it is remembered that this profane drivel is taught to young men whose duty it is to become teachers of children, many of whom are nonconformists, and all of whom, it is to be hoped, have had a decent English bringing up, its true character will be appre-

ciated. I do not think I was far wrong in finding some kinship between the spirit of the author of the book and that of the Spanish persecutors. I shall be curious to know whether it be a mark of bigotry, or of a lack of education, to object to these doctrines, or to believe that the money of the State is ill-spent in promoting them.—I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

H. O. ARNOLD-FORSTER.

[In this particular instance we did not charge Mr. Arnold-Forster with bigotry, but we did charge him with saying what he knew to be irrelevant. We do not approve of the theological attitude of the passages set out by Mr. Arnold-Forster, and their tone is offensive in much the same way as is that of Protestant fanaticism. But that does not affect the futility of dragging Spain into the discussion. So far as Mr. Smith's citations were not impertinent to the debate, the teaching they evoke requires examination on merits. To dispose of it by invoking "a bad name" and the appeal to prejudice was not argument; but it is rhetoric which Orange enthusiasm entirely appreciates.

To believe that the money of the State is spent in promoting these or any other religious doctrines we certainly should say was a mark of deficient education, for an educated man should know that public money is in England granted only for secular instruction, the State not recognising religion in matters of education. The trustworthiness of Mr. Smith's citations and the inference they were meant to support requires investigation. In this connexion, we trust that Mr. Arnold-Forster listened to and digested Lord Hugh Cecil's speech of Thursday night. It appears that the book quoted from has no circulation, and that it is sixteen years since the author was principal of a training college.—ED. S. R.]

THE RELEASE OF THE EARL OF SALISBURY BY PHILIP VI.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

The University, S. Andrews, 5 June, 1900.

SIR,—In your note to my letter in your issue of last week, in reference to the release of the Earl of Salisbury, you ask me to answer the following question. How comes it that if the Earl of Salisbury was captured in the spring of 1340 and was only liberated on 2 June, 1342, he was, according to my own showing, at p. 187 of "The History of Edward III.," at Westminster in April 1341? I have great pleasure in answering, and after I have done so, I think that you will not be of opinion that I have been guilty of making inconsistent statements in the matter.

The answer is simple enough. The Earl was allowed by Philip VI. to cross to England in order apparently to raise the money for his ransom. His visit was evidently unsuccessful, for he certainly returned to France, as Philip's prisoner. This is proved by the license granted by Edward to William de Montacute, Earl of Salisbury, *prisoner in France*, to swear that he will not bear arms against Philip de Valois, in France. This license is dated 20 May, 1342! ("Fœdera," Rex Ed. II. part II. p. 1195). On this condition and in return for the liberation of the Earl of Moray by Edward, Philip released Salisbury a fortnight later. As you seem to doubt the assurance to this effect given in my letter of the 26th ult., without special reference to authorities, I am sure you will not doubt the explicit testimony of a State paper.

That Salisbury was, nevertheless, in England in the spring of 1341, as I have noted in my description of the scene consequent on the refusal of the Royal Guards to admit Archbishop Stratford to the Painted Chamber, is quite correct. The "Fœdera" also furnishes information on this point. On 18 February, 1341, Edward granted indemnity to the Bishop of Exeter for the detention of Margaret de Monthermer and for delivering her to the Earl of Salisbury. On 15 March following, he enjoined Margaret's mother to pay 100 marks a year to Salisbury for the support of her daughter, whose wardship he had granted to the Earl. Salisbury was

thus evidently at the English Court at this time, as asserted by Birchington, the contemporary chronicler from whom I partly derived my information as to the struggle between the King and the Archbishop.

It is not in the least surprising that he was. To allow prisoners of rank temporarily to return home in order to raise their ransom money was the constant practice of the age. Take the cases of David of Scotland, Charles of Blois, the Count of Eu, the Duke of Anjou, and many more mentioned in "The History of Edward III." In regard to Salisbury in particular there are several notices in the "*Fœdera*" of the negotiation of his ransom. On 18 October, 1340, licence is given by Edward to John de Pulteneye to export 160 sacks of wool for the Earl's ransom ("*Fœd.*" II., 1139). On the 26th of the same month Edward granted his prisoner, the Earl of Moray, *who had been allowed to go to Scotland for a few weeks*, to Salisbury for the purpose of enabling him to make terms with Philip. There are several other notices of this business throughout 1341 and into the spring of 1342 when Moray was engaged in the endeavour to negotiate the exchange. On 22 February, 1342, for example, Edward granted Moray protection to go to France and remain till 24 June for this purpose. His efforts were at last successful, for before the stipulated date of his return, Salisbury was liberated in exchange for himself. There is therefore no inconsistency in the matter in "The History of Edward III." If, as I said in my letter, I had been able to print the note I had drawn up on the subject, the charge of inconsistency could not have occurred to the reader. Even as it is he might possibly have paused to ask whether the reason did not lie in his own want of special knowledge rather than in the writer. "Dr. Mackinnon's inconsistent positions" have now, it is to be hoped, been disposed of for the present!

If I had printed all the notes which I drew up in reference to the obscure points continually cropping up during my study of "The History of Henry III." there would have been more notes than text. I think you will be disposed to admit, from this sample, that the labour undergone in writing this book from original sources, which in spite of its voluminous notes does not adequately appear in the book itself, has deserved all the acknowledgment with which your reviewer has favoured it. This point alone is represented in the text by just a single line.—Yours faithfully,

JAMES MACKINNON.

[When in our review of Dr. Mackinnon's book we spoke of being "under the impression" that the Earl of Salisbury was released "almost immediately," we meant of course on the conclusion of that year's campaign, i.e. in or about September 1340. The evidence for the Earl's release about this date seems to be unshaken by anything that Dr. Mackinnon has written. (1) By the terms of the treaty of Espéchin (25 September, 1340) it was agreed that "*all prisoners*" on both sides—French and English alike—should be released "*so long as the truce lasted*" (*durants les dits treves*)—subject, of course, to an obligation to return to prison in the long run in case of the treaty's being broken off or a failure to pay their ransom by a specified date. *This creates a very strong presumption that the Earl of Salisbury was released at or about this time.* (2) In addition to this an English chronicler, writing as it appears almost in the very year of this release, after alluding to this treaty tells us: (a) that the prisoners actually *were* released on both sides, as the treaty had provided; (b) amongst the prisoners thus released he expressly mentions the Earl of Salisbury by name; (c) and, to crown all, so far as this Earl is concerned, *distinctly states that his release took place before Edward III. went back to England i.e. BEFORE 30 November, 1340 A.D.* (3) Another chronicler, frequently cited in Dr. Mackinnon's own pages, declares the Earl of Salisbury to have been set free at or about the same time: "*initis treugis*" 1340—i.e. *in or about September 1340.* All this evidence cannot be overthrown by Dr. Mackinnon's mere assertion that it is "wrong."—Ed. S. R.]

ENGLAND AND AMERICA.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Hoboken, N.J. : May 27, 1900.

SIR,—From your exchanges you estimate that about half of our people are pro-Boer. In justice you should note that the other half are friendly and you do virtually intimate as much. Show me another Government of a great Power one half of whose subjects are in your favour. I defy you to do so. If you had quarrelled with us in 1898 you would have had the enmity of us all. The friendly "half" (which is a much larger fraction) can convert the others if Englishmen will remain true to their own, which they can easily do in a quiet and firm manner.

The "intrigues" in Nicaragua have come to nothing. Although the Senate has not ratified the Hay-Pauncefote treaty it has defeated the Hepburn Bill, both of which facts are to your advantage. As for Alaskan "intrigues" Canada by claiming what the British gave up in their earlier disputes with Russia, when Alaska belonged to the latter, has made the said "intrigues" on her own side. The American navigation law is also an irritant. The repeal of it, which allows trade between American ports only in our vessels, would remove nearly the whole cause for dispute, for then Canada could sail her own vessels from the Alaskan ports to ours.—Very truly,

JAMES H. BATES.

MR. GILL AND THE PLAN OF CAMPAIGN.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Beaconsfield Habitation, Primrose League, Dublin,
9 Leinster Street.

SIR,—In the "Times" of 13 and 14 April last there appear two letters, in both of which Mr. Gill is categorically accused of having been an accomplice in the "Plan of Campaign." One of the letters is actually in extenuation of Mr. Gill's conduct, and in defence of the policy of his appointment—yet the writer distinctly admits that Mr. Gill had joined in the Plan. No contradiction, official or otherwise, has ever been given to these statements. It is, therefore, no mere "allegation" to declare that Mr. Gill was an accomplice in the "Plan of Campaign," and until the charge is denied, or until Mr. Gill renounces the principles of the Plan, all loyalists, Irish, English, or Scottish, have a right to denounce his appointment as in itself an unwise one, besides being an insult to loyalists.—I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

E. S. ROBERTSON.

CATS AND THE STORM.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Chawton Lodge, Alton, Hants, 13 June, 1900.

SIR,—Some of your readers may be interested to hear of the effect produced by last night's storm (I have never before in England watched for so long such incessant, vivid, and seemingly ubiquitous lightning) upon certain persons "who have had the misfortune not to be born human" (a wondrous, doubtful, saying which is perhaps still remembered). Of two cats in this house one, and that the elder, was so scared that having found shelter indoors it fled out again, seemingly in sheer affright, and only returned, a dripping rag, when the terror of the storm was past. The other and younger cat prudently stayed indoors. But both are to-day "bags of nerves." Cats, to be sure, are normally bags of electricity, so one understands their condition. More curious is it that an elderly, specially courageous, experienced, highly educated, and, as to travel, Ulysses-like colley dog should have obviously gone through much the same gamut of emotion as did the cats, though his dignity impelled him to conceal the fact as much as he could—which was not much. It may not be uninteresting to note that, after the storm, the unmistakable "Leyden-jar smell" clung strongly to every room where there had been even a chink of window left open.—Believe me, yours very truly,

WALTER HERRIES POLLOCK.

REVIEWS.

THE PROFANITY OF RHETORIC.

"The Life of Lives." By F. W. Farrar, Dean of Canterbury. London: Cassell. 1900. 15s.

DR. FARRAR is the oracle of the half-educated multitudes of England and America, who belong to "the denominations," and profess the undenominational creed. He owes this position mainly to the "Life of Christ" which "twenty-six years ago he was led by 'God's unseen Providence,' which men nickname 'chance'" to give to a more than kindly public. In plain language the enterprising publishers who conceived the idea, chose the author, sent him to Palestine, and paid him liberally made a very good thing of their venture. The "Life of Christ" has obtained an immense circulation, and been translated into many languages, but from the first it has provoked much hostile criticism, and is never referred to without impatience in scholarly or ecclesiastical company. The Dean probably sees in the fact another proof that scribes and Pharisees are still, as ever, the natural enemies of spiritual excellence: but less interested observers may, perhaps, think the phenomenon less simple. The book before us is avowedly designed as a sequel to the "Life of Christ": it has the same merits and the same, or even greater defects. In forming a judgment on the latest product of the author's too-fertile brain, we shall discover the secret of the contradictory fortunes which have followed his earlier work.

Both success and failure arise from a single circumstance, the incongruity between the author's method and his Subject. The Dean has had many imitators in his own line, but thirty years ago the field was open for a treatment of the sacred history which should frankly shake off the severity of the theologian, without adopting the ribaldry of the sceptic. There was a middle way of picturesque writing, which, without offending any Christian conviction, would propitiate and allure that religious public, whose taste is formed in revivalist meetings, and whose literary ideals are mainly journalistic. Renan, with incomparably greater learning, ability, and grace has, from his own standpoint, done for Frenchmen what Dean Farrar has done for the English-speaking religious public. Both have subjected the Evangelistic narratives to the normal treatment, and exploited the awful interest of the life of Christ for the benefit of their own literary fortunes. Both writers, allowance being always made for their opposed standpoints, offend the cultivated reader in the same way. Rhetoric is, at best, superfluous when the Gospel is in question. It may easily become actually offensive.

The mischiefs of licentious rhetoric let loose on the most sacred of all subjects go far beyond the offence given to good taste, or even the wound inflicted on sensitive spirituality. The Dean is the victim of his own verbosity, and is rushed into error by the stream of his own verbiage. That he destroys the very effects at which he evidently aims goes without saying. Thus no educated man will read without impatience the grotesque descriptions of pagan and Jewish society, which fill the earlier chapters of the book. There is authority of a sort for every detail, but the general effect is little short of libellous. No doubt certain aspects of classical society were abominable, and, perhaps, it is substantially true that Christianity has banished or nearly banished them from the modern world: but there are two things to be remembered, both of which Dean Farrar forgets. On the one hand, those darkest aspects of ancient life were not co-extensive with society, and were, indeed, lamented as abominable by the best opinion of the time. Juvenal himself mitigates the witness of his satire: a society which could produce and appreciate so stern and vigorous a moralist was not wholly depraved. On the other hand, there are dark features in the Christian world which have no parallel in that old Roman society. Mr. Lecky's just and comprehensive discussion of the actual effects of Christianity on human life will disallow Dean Farrar's too-confident rhetoric, and give food for much anxious thought to any serious student. Jewish society is even worse maligned in these "studies." We may say that

Christianity itself is the apology for Judaism. The ethics of the Church were learned in the synagogue. We commend to the Dean the sane and necessary observations on this subject in Mr. Montefiore's admirable Hibbert Lectures.

Over-statement is the besetting sin of the popular preacher: and these "studies" at every turn illustrate the fact. Thus it is not true that "the four Gospels do not record one saying, or one incident which we should wish to be obliterated, as weakening our faith or diminishing our reverence" (p. 70). The blasting of the fig-tree and the destruction of the swine are notoriously calculated to diminish reverence: the materialistic colour of some of the Resurrection narratives as notoriously tend to weaken faith. They may, or may not, be explicable: probably most Christians believe they are explicable: but surely none can deny that they are difficulties in themselves, and stumbling-blocks to many. It is excessive to describe "a Passover crowd in the Temple courts as an epitome of the civilised world" (p. 168). It would be nearer the truth to say that it was precisely the reverse. Who would maintain that Mecca, or even Rome, could now be so described? Holy cities and civilisation do not easily coalesce in any age: and the shrines are ever the last homes of barbarism. It is not true that "there are but three or four actual spots where we may be certain that the feet of the Saviour of mankind have stood" (p. 276). There are either none at all, or there are many. Incidentally we may observe that considering how much of his life has been spent in fostering the interest of Christian folk in the details of Christ's terrestrial history, and what considerable advantages that interest has brought to himself as an ecclesiastic and as an author, it is a little ungrateful in Dean Farrar to write contemptuously of the sentiment. It is monstrous to say that "the whole body of priests were Sadducees who had become unspiritual sceptics and worshippers of Mammon" (p. 311). Has the Dean ever heard of Zacharias, or of the great number of priests who joined the Apostolic Church?

Over-statement is the half-way house to error, and in these "studies" the latter point is not rarely reached. S. James, the son of Zebedee, was not "chosen to be the head of the Infant Church in Jerusalem" (p. 424). That distinction belonged to the brother of the Lord. Christ gave the commission to "remit" and "retain" sins not to "His little band of Apostles" (p. 435) but, as is pointed out elsewhere (p. 438) to "the disciples generally." The passage quoted on p. 25 belongs to the "later Isaiah," whose existence is assumed on p. 47. It is absurd to contend on p. 229 that S. John Baptist, as the son of a priest, was "therefore in a position to observe at first hand the decay of a sacerdotalism which within was full of extortion and excess," and on p. 233 to dwell on the fact that the child was "nurtured amid the free winds and lonely grandeur of the wilderness." There is a grave contradiction between Bishop Westcott's statement, quoted with approval on p. 248, that "Christ assumed humanity under the conditions of life belonging to man fallen, though not with sinful promptings from within," and the Dean's own statement on p. 263 that our Lord's constant endeavour was "to annihilate every prompting which should have its source only in the earthly self." The latter statement seems to us inconsistent with orthodoxy.

Obiter dicta abound, and move our scepticism. Is it true that Christ's sinlessness was sufficient to convince His followers of His Divine Nature (p. 75)? We cannot so read the evidence. Perhaps the fact ought to have had that effect: but that is another question. Is it certain that the reading of the Prophets was introduced in the persecution of Antiochus as a substitute for the prohibited Law (p. 104)? Professor Ryle calls this "an ingenious suggestion, but one without a word of support from early literature," and dismisses it as unworthy of credence. On what authority does the statement rest that "What most astonished [the Doctors in the Temple] was Christ's knowledge of the Scriptures" (p. 119)?

We must confess to some disappointment at the contempt of now generally accepted critical theories which is implied in the reference to Solomon as the author of two passages in the Proverbs (pp. 130 and 132), to

David as the author of the 51st Psalm (p. 205), to the narrative of the Fall as historic (p. 252), and to the Apocalypse as the work of the author of the Fourth Gospel (p. 428). It surely is excessive to say that "the genuineness of S. John's Gospel" is "finally established by modern criticism" (p. 429)? Generally the treatment of Scripture throughout this volume, in spite of occasional departures from traditional views, and a rather pedantic fashion of re-translating familiar passages into very odd English, is essentially uncritical. The loose usage of the platform and the pulpit rather than the exact treatment of the scholar prevails.

There remains to be noted one more grave and pervading fault. "Studies" ought beyond all other compositions to be passionless things, uncoloured by prejudice, unaffected by partisanship. Dean Farrar's "studies" are far indeed from all this. At every turn the author is reminding us of his personal dislikes and present feuds. Occasionally his militant zeal against his adversaries oversteps the limits of good sense. He contrasts "the evangelisation" of "a Paul, a Peter, a Francis of Assisi, a Francis Xavier, a Wesley, a Whitfield" with "the most elaborately gorgeous ceremonials of Popes and priests" (p. 279). He does not seem to understand that the two things are properly incomparable. He adopts the early Helvidian theory about our Lord's "brethren" (p. 150) in spite of the ecclesiastical tradition against it: but he rejects the early Christian view about Christ's personal appearance in deference to the later tradition (p. 161). It is impossible not to see that the really determining argument in both cases is the Dean's personal preference. He dislikes the exaltation of virginity, which he associates with the Catholic view about Christ's brethren: and he dislikes the notion of a physically insignificant Christ because the somewhat carnal view of the fitness of things which is established in his mind, as in that of the pseudo-evangelists, demands the perfection of bodily beauty in the Redeemer. On p. 436 he explicitly repudiates the traditional Christian belief in a visible Church, though in the following pages he tacitly assumes it at every turn.

Dean Farrar has many gifts. He is a copious orator, a widely read student, a man of many interests, and great energy. He has written many books, which have familiarised the public with his views on many subjects. This book has all the author's faults and few of his merits. We are tempted to apply to it his own description of the prayers of the Pharisees. Like them, these "studies" are "verbose, stereotyped, wearisome, and interminable, abounding in vain repetitions and artificial phrases." They are, indeed—and to this extent we exonerate the author—largely made up of quotations, many of which, however, we conjecture from internal evidence, and in the absence of references we have no other clue, to be taken from the Dean's own writings. In any case they are often superfluous, sometimes irrelevant, and hardly ever spontaneous. They suggest the outpouring of a preacher's common-place book, rather than the work of an Anglican dignitary perfected in the studious retirement of a cathedral close. Few forms of composition are more exasperating, none are less serviceable, than a mosaic of more or less familiar tags: yet this is all we have in these "studies," tags from the English poets, mostly cemented together by the fluid purple patches of a more than Asiatic luxuriance of verbiage. The volume is, perhaps, an example of what the Dean calls "impressive pregnancy." It certainly illustrates the profanity of rhetoric.

MR. RHODES.

"Cecil Rhodes: his Political Life and Speeches. 1881-1900." By Vindex. London: Chapman and Hall. 1900. 12s. net.

POSSIBLY no one will be so astonished at seeing a book of nearly 900 pages devoted to Mr. Rhodes' speeches as Mr. Rhodes himself. Froude once maintained with success the thesis that in the world's history the great orators have always been demonstrably wrong or, at best, ineffectual. This book suggests an extension of the doctrine. Mr. Rhodes, to put it brutally, is not a

good speaker, and his speeches do not make good reading. He is, however, always effective: his hearers watch the man rather than listen to the words. Thus, though readers have not this compensation, it was perhaps worth while for "Vindex" to collect the utterances in which the founder of Rhodesia has chosen to give an account of his life-work, and doubtless many people who despair of founding a sane judgment of Mr. Rhodes' career on newspaper attacks and panegyrics will turn with hope to his own words. They will find here and there a striking phrase, and everywhere a conscious purpose, steadfast beneath manifest inconsistencies.

Mr. Rhodes appeared in Cape politics at a time when staunch Englishmen were beginning to despair of the Mother-Country. No one in Africa was deceived by Mr. Gladstone's phrases about magnanimity, and the peace after Majuba was seen in its true light, both by triumphant Republicans and enraged loyalists, as an abject surrender to rebellion. The Afrikaner Bond sprang into life with the avowed intention, afterwards discreetly put aside, of forming an Afrikaner nation. President Brand of the Free State, a man of extraordinarily clear vision, protested earnestly against the new association, which, as he saw, was bound to lead to racial war. But a certain number of English colonists, conceiving that England had voluntarily abandoned her claims on South African loyalty, were ready to come to terms with their future masters. Mr. Rhodes, fresh from Kimberley, entered upon a confused political stage with the purpose of preserving for Cape Colony the road to the North. His training was unique: he had divided the last few years between reading for a pass degree at Oxford and beating upon their own ground such worthies as the late Mr. Barnato. He had a closer connexion with England than most Cape politicians, and the England that he knew was not theirs. It is a significant thing that he had brothers in the British army.

But in Cape Colony the Bond was making way, the Bond was all for cordiality towards the Transvaal, and English politicians were servants of the Bond. The Dutch Afrikaners had not enough educated men to fill political offices, therefore in the Transvaal they imported Hollanders and in Cape Colony they utilised English place-hunting politicians. If we desire to be fair to Mr. Rhodes, we must look at facts which are not flattering to our national self-respect. After 1881 no Minister of the Crown in Cape Colony could do anything for the Empire without conciliating interests hostile to England. It is quite useless to hurry over these unhappy years with "Vindex." Mr. Rhodes, after a brief spell of office under Sir Thomas Scanlen, a politician for whom the Bond was too strong, found that the Cape must be ruled by Dutch ideas, and that the North could only be secured if the Cape Dutch became convinced that it ought to belong to them and not to their Transvaal kinsmen. Hence the alliance with Mr. Hofmeyr. The Transvaal by a foolish fiscal policy alienated the Cape farmers: to them Mr. Rhodes pointed out new lands in the North. Mr. Hofmeyr governed the Colony on lines to which words spoken by Mr. Rhodes in another connexion may fairly apply, "non-education, drunken coloured labour." But northern expansion was secured, and the northern expansion has really made firm the Imperial position in South Africa, and has done much for racial appeasement. But it may perhaps be seen why the English of Port Elizabeth and Natal disliked Mr. Rhodes' politics before 1895. The immediate sacrifices weighed heavily on them, and they could hardly see the ultimate triumph. For of course Mr. Rhodes was utilising the Bond to build up a Dominion of South Africa. He seems to have hoped that President Kruger might also be persuaded to come into his happy family, but the old President did not want to see Cape Town the capital of a united South Africa.

There are incidents in these early years on which "Vindex" is not quite frank. He is a panegyrist, and an able special pleader. But no one who has read Mr. Mackenzie's "Austral Africa" will accept the account given by "Vindex" of the triangular duel played out in 1885 in Bechuanaland between the Imperial Government, the Transvaal, and Cape Colony. The

best one can say is that Cape Colony was fighting for its own hand, and that but for Mr. Rhodes it might have been fighting for the Transvaal. Again, the account of the Parnell negotiations is unpleasant. Mr. Rhodes ostensibly secured the insertion of an Imperial Federation clause in a Bill which was certain not to pass, by subscribing heavily to a party which was pursuing treasonable ends under the sanction of outrage. Parnellite methods did not concern the colonial statesman, but "Vindex" shows a touching innocence when he ignores the fact that eighty silent votes in the Commons were a valuable commercial asset.

We deprecate this unflinching eulogy. It is not telling the truth, and in effect but belittles the good work Mr. Rhodes has done. The acquisition of Rhodesia will in a hundred years' time be acknowledged to have been of supreme importance. The much-criticised Glen-Grey Act, about which most English critics know nothing, was the first serious attempt to deal with the greatest African problem, the making of the Kafir into a decent and useful member of the State. It was genuinely statesmanlike, and that it was not an electioneering move may fairly be presumed from the fact that the Kafir vote, so far as it is influenced by the growing class of "affir babus," has in consequence been given to the Bond. And, in spite of the Raid, Mr. Rhodes has done more than anyone else to make the Cape Dutchman see that an Englishman is a man with whom he can live comfortably.

"Vindex" might well have been as frank as he is prolix, and have admitted that Mr. Rhodes has often disappointed his well-wishers. The work is there, and the work is great enough to atone for faults in the workman. This book sets it forth in an interesting, if not an impartial manner, and the author deals several shrewd and quite fair blows at the egregious Mr. Hobson.

SHERIDAN.

"The Plays of Sheridan." London: Macmillan. 1900. 3s. 6d. net.

OF two illustrious Irishmen of birth not precisely illustrious, Sheridan and Burke, it might have been said at any time during their later years that they were by no means "parvenus" but "arrivés." And yet, in the London of their day, to be Irish was little less disadvantageous than to be Scotch, and when we think of their fellow-countryman Goldsmith and of their great contemporary Johnson, men not inferior in powers of mind, the reason of the great success in life of Burke and Sheridan is not immediately obvious. Mostly no doubt it was the fact that they applied their power to politics, that landed Burke at Beaconsfield and gave Sheridan the option of "hiding his head in a coronet"—though, as a first step to public life, such literary glory as came to Burke from his imitation of Bolingbroke, or to Sheridan from his plays, was even then in the same way useful as their humdrum versification had been to the Addisons and Priors of an earlier generation. But we take it that it was also largely a matter of money. When the youthful Burke wrote the "Treatise on the Sublime" his father, a delighted Dublin attorney, sent him a hundred pounds, but even such a small windfall as this never came to Goldsmith or Johnson, who went respectively through a mill of poverty unknown to the other two. Both Burke and Sheridan had that curious knack, which many men still possess, of getting their financial pottery to swim unbroken by the side of brazen vessels. Such men reverse the phrase of Horace and are "in magna inopia non inopes." How it exactly was that Burke managed to finance his own life has remained a puzzle to his biographers, but, in some way quite impossible to a man such as Goldsmith, manage it he did, and in like manner Sheridan, whose sources of income if more evident were also more precarious—and who was besides absurdly extravagant—contrived like his own Charles Surface and in spite of his "distresses," to ruffle it to his last hour with the rich, and died, not, as has been so often repeated, in the squalor of an attic, but surrounded with every circumstance of comfort. The story of his untended death-bed, first circulated by Croker, is typical of such a mass of myth

in connexion with Sheridan that we take this occasion of mentioning to such of our readers as may be unaware of its existence the book in which Mr. Fraser Rae, so lately as four years ago, unveiled the real Sheridan for the first time. They will find there many previously unpublished "human documents" in the shape of old letters, &c. which, great as their interest is, we cannot dwell upon now.

In the meantime a critic in "Blackwood" has been telling us that not Sheridan but Congreve is the true representative of our best comedy, and that Sheridan owes his position to-day to the accident that he wrote at a time when Mr. Lang's mysterious wave of "literary decency" had already swept over England and the satirical lament was heard that—

"Our decent manners all obscenity flout
And wit is at one entrance quite shut out."

As regards Sheridan we may well give him the individual credit of eschewing grossness when we find his sister-in-law writing to his wife—"You know that Sheridan hates indelicacies"—and we should think it quite calumnious to say, as does Mr. Street, that Sheridan put "a few unnecessary innuendoes" into the "School for Scandal." The tone of his love letters to his wife, both before and after their marriage, and his letters to a school friend given by Mr. Fraser Rae, seem to make it highly probable that his sister-in-law's compliment was well deserved. But after all, the essayist we have in view has the respectable taste of thinking meanly of Sheridan as a dramatist and let us concede him all we can. Let us admit that a Restoration dramatist would have treated the Teazle situation in a very much coarser way and—to drop controversy in the presence of genius—let us admiringly add that Congreve in creating Millamant presented us with a breathing type beside which Lady Teazle herself is lifeless. Millamant is undoubtedly a "rogue in porcelain" who might be expected to adorn a Meredithian novel rather than a Restoration stage, but, returning to our point, Mr. Street seems to forget that Congreve, though he outlived many or most of them, was one of the "men without hearts" and that Sheridan was not. Sir Henry Irving singled out Sheridan's "humanity" as his strong point; and, in spite of the critics with whom paradox and platitude are convertible terms, we would rather take this view than follow Macaulay's lead and lump Sheridan and Congreve together as writers who wrecked comedy by sacrificing character to dialogue. The "School for Scandal" is a very human play. For playgoers of our own generation the pathos of Sir Peter has been enhanced by the ideal impersonation of Mr. William Farren, but reperusals of the piece can leave no doubt in a candid mind of the essential good-heartedness of its author. We are often enjoined to set against this the fact that Sheridan made Old Rowley and Sir Oliver as witty as the others, but, after all, this only amounts to Leigh Hunt's uncomplaining complaint against Shakespeare that he made his minor characters talk as well as he could himself—nor does there seem to be any real reason why Sir Oliver should not have been gifted with a cynical and celibate humour. In any case this is a defect which the human public readily forgives, and if they want something different—we say it unsneeringly—they have always Ibsen and Mr. Shaw. Rogers, it seems, gave his preference over the "School for Scandal" to "The Rivals" because—"exquisite humour pleases me more than the finest wit." There is plenty of wit in "The Rivals" and one can only suppose that Rogers was thinking of the oozing courage of Bob Acres—a form of humour which in the opinion of some it takes no little wit to redeem. Sheridan's great acting play never falls to this plane.

We say regretfully his great acting play; for "The Critic," his most flawless literary production, is as good or better to read than to see, and the comicality of such things as the conspirators' prayer, though not very recondite to a lettered mind, is quite over the heads of average audiences. It is curious to remember that the Duke of Buckingham's "Rehearsal" was still being acted when Sheridan was young, and that "The Critic" took its place—to be ousted in its turn in this

last decade by the "Pantomime Rehearsal," a skit truly delightful and laughable and, in the confusion of gratitude, by no means unworthy to be ranked with the play of which Johnson rather too unkindly said that it had not wit enough to keep it sweet. Nevertheless, where will be the "Pantomime Rehearsal" when it loses its present admirable caste? The confusion of "Bellerophon" with "ruffian," and the "teeny tiny twinkling elves" are a rather abrupt descent from the classical finish of "The Critic."

To the excellent series which includes this volume of Sheridan's plays we shall return, but we may say here in view of future reprints that we are promised in a prefatory bibliographical note a sound emendation—"waive" for "wave" at the very end of "The School for Scandal"—which has not been adopted in the text. To borrow the language of Sheridan's honoured fellow-countryman, the editor has not in this little matter taken care to see that what he thought best was done.

FOSSIL ANIMALS.

"Text-Book of Palæontology." By Karl von Zittel. Translated and edited by C. R. Eastman. Vol. I. London: Macmillan. 1900. 25s. net.

AFTER the study of fossils had ceased to be little more than an interest in structures curious or beautiful to see and difficult to explain, it made its first appearance as a branch of science in the capacity of a handmaid to geology. Fossils were convenient means of identifying layers of rocks, and palæontology was a department of stratigraphical geology. This conception lingers in the arrangements of many museums; even in the National Museum of Natural History the remains of fossil creatures are to be found in the parts of the museum devoted to geology, and are under the control of the Geological Department. There is no scientific justification for such treatment. Fossils are the remains of extinct animals or plants and the consideration of their structure and of their place in classification is a part of zoology or of botany. Moreover, the more certainly the conception of the evolution of animal and plant life becomes an integral part of scientific thought, the more necessary is it that extinct forms should be dealt with in common with living forms. A text-book like the one now before us is really a scientific anomaly; even in its treatment, it has been found necessary to include a considerable portion of the matter of ordinary zoological treatises, and without the inclusion of considerably more, it cannot take the place due to its inherent merits.

The reason for the unfortunate divorce between the knowledge of extinct and of living forms is partly historical and partly due to the limits of human time. In the past, study of the two subjects has been separate and in the present the methods of palæontological and of zoological work are each so complex and so different that it is extremely rare for one person to be an expert in both. None the less, the separation is deeply to be regretted and while it is possibly still necessary that the writers of original treatises on fossil and on extinct forms should be different persons, there is little reason for the multiplication of such works by translation. In the present case, Dr. Zittel is probably the leading living authority on general palæontology, and there would have been sufficient reason for providing a separate translation of his larger work. This volume is the first half of a smaller book necessarily more limited in scope, and a band of specialists have given their assistance in making it as complete as possible. It would have been much more useful had zoological specialists been added, so that a combined text-book on living and extinct forms might have been produced. As it is, the volume is merely a condensed treatise on certain animals which happen to be extinct, and which happen to have possessed hard structures capable of preservation. Its scope is as logical as would be that of a volume on such animals as happened to have no internal skeleton, and the prevailing tint of whose tissues happened to be blue.

These general criticisms being made, there remains little more than to praise the execution of the volume. It is admirably and clearly written, well illustrated and

appears to have been brought well up to the date of contemporary knowledge. The second volume dealing with vertebrate forms should be more useful than this first part, as the important additions to knowledge of such animals have been extremely numerous within recent years. The summaries of literature are competent and useful.

In the introduction, which deals with the general principles of palæontology, a somewhat curious omission occurs. In the earlier days of geology when fossils were used chiefly as means of identifying strata, similar beds in different regions were regarded as belonging to the same period when the fossils found in them were identical. Geology and palæontology gradually established two important facts; first, that any particular area of the earth's surface has been occupied successively by different kinds of living beings; and second, that the order of succession proved in one area holds almost exactly in all other areas. There arose the habit of regarding as contemporaneous, beds in different localities but identical in serial succession and organic remains. Obviously when such facts and terms came to be scrutinised in the light of evolution, it became clear that beds in localities separated geographically could not be "contemporaneous" if they contained identical fossils, since time must be allowed for the migration of the living creatures from the district in which they arose to any other districts in which they might have come to live. Approximate identity of organic remains in separate localities, instead of being an indication of synchronism, came to be almost a disproof of such a time relation. It was Huxley, who in an address to the Geological Society in 1862 first called attention to this important generalisation and he suggested the name "homotaxy" to denote this similarity which could not be synchronism, and it does not appear that his arguments have been overthrown. But Dr. Zittel and his American editors in their general discussion of the principle underlying palæontology have left this important consideration unnoticed possibly because it seemed to them too axiomatic.

WORTHY OF MARRYAT.

"Hurrah for the Life of a Sailor! Fifty Years in the Royal Navy." By Vice-Admiral Sir William Kennedy. London and Edinburgh: Blackwood. 1900. 12s. 6d.

IF steam and iron have taken most of the romance and sentiment from modern service at sea, they have not obliterated the love of adventure and sense of humour in the sailor as depicted by Marryat and in "Tom Cringle's Log." This yarn by Admiral Kennedy of his naval life abounds in both and should become as great a favourite with boys as "Peter Simple." The most stirring part of his career was his midshipman days, first in the Crimea and then in China. Young Kennedy received his baptism of fire at the bombardment of the sea forts of Sebastopol, when his ship—the "Rodney"—coming to the assistance of the "Agamemnon," grounded and was for some time exposed to a heavy fire. The following year he joined the Naval Brigade on shore, and after an attack of cholera was sent on board the "Sphinx," whence he witnessed the evacuation of Sebastopol by the Russians. His next service was in China, war being declared against her in October, 1856. It was principally river-work, and in rowing boats, for steam launches had not then been added to a warship's equipment. There can be no better training to inculcate self-reliance and acceptance of responsibility in a young officer than detachment from his ship in charge of a boat for weeks at a time. Speaking of this period Admiral Kennedy says: "Life in an open boat for months together would have been wearisome but for the constant excitement. For society I had my coxswain and boat's crew, working under a broiling sun by day with a chance of being blown up at night, or having one's head taken off by a round shot next morning. But there is a charm in having a command of one's own, be it ever so humble, at eighteen years of age." It is responsibility at an early age which makes the British naval officer what he is; a characteristic to be retained

at all hazards. Its value was demonstrated when the "Wasp" went ashore in the Mozambique Channel. Kennedy, then a young lieutenant, was sent in the cutter to make his way to Zanzibar, a distance of 400 miles against the north-east monsoon, the object being to procure a vessel to take the crew of the "Wasp" in case she had to be abandoned. The story of his mission and the hardships endured is graphically told, while the exploit speaks volumes for the skill and endurance of British seamen. As commander of the "Reindeer" in the Pacific Kennedy could indulge that love of sport which beginning as a midshipman continued throughout his career; indeed much of the book is taken up with shooting expeditions, narrated with spirit and enlivened with many amusing stories. Some of these we have heard before but most are original. The following is worthy of Marryat. "The boatswain of a brig was challenged by the captain of a French ship for having insulted him, and a rendezvous was arranged on shore. The boatswain landed with a ship's pistol, and observing the Frenchman waiting with his second under a palm tree, he at once opened fire on him, and advanced loading and firing until the Frenchman took to his heels." The captain of this brig was much disliked by his officers; and once when he was very ill the first lieutenant would drill the marines at the Burial Service just over his head. The corporal gave his orders thus: "The corpse is now a-comeing up the 'atchway—reverse harms!" It is stated the captain recovered. As senior officer on the coast of Newfoundland Captain Kennedy found little difficulty in maintaining good terms with his French colleague, but the position of affairs required considerable tact which may not always be evinced. On one occasion finding a cruise monotonous, and wishing to give his crew some useful exercise, the captain provided it by jumping overboard himself. He was smartly picked up; but it was a risky proceeding, and if done by a junior officer might have led to punishment for being out of the ship without leave! This incident forms the subject of an excellent illustration by the author. Indeed in the sketches with which this book is illustrated Admiral Kennedy shows himself a skilful artist as well as seaman and sportsman. The writer has many a sly hit at official ways and red-tapeism. On one occasion he took off the crew from a burning ship, and kept them on board his own vessel until reaching the next port. The only notice taken of his action was a letter long afterwards from the Admiralty asking by what authority he had expended ship's provisions to feed these men and "under what grant" payment of the same came! With the hoisting his flag in the "Boadicea" as Commander-in-Chief of the East Indian station Admiral Kennedy brings his experiences to an end. Though a position of such dignity would no longer allow his jumping overboard for the edification of his crew, the restriction is accepted with resignation and he is able to indulge more fully in the sport which that station affords. We should have liked to hear more of the changes in the Navy and the customs of fifty years ago, but as a whole few books have given the charm and variety of a sailor's life, combined with amusement, as has this one.

A RECOVERED CIVILISATION.

"A Guide to the Babylonian and Assyrian Antiquities in the British Museum." Printed by order of the Trustees. 1900. 1s.

OF all the marvellous achievements of our time none is more marvellous than the rise and growth of Assyriology. Less than a century ago the civilisations of Assyria and Babylonia seemed to have so utterly passed away that nothing was remembered of them except a few doubtful names and a few classical fables; to-day they are almost as well known to us as the civilisations of Greece and Rome. And still the wonder grows. The civilised nations of Europe and America are competing with one another in the excavation of the buried cities of Babylonia and the innumerable clay books with which their libraries were stored. Only the other day German excavators lighted upon the palace of Nebuchadnezzar in which Alexander the Great died,

and the American expedition at Niffer disinterred a library of more than eighteen thousand volumes, all ranged in order upon the mud shelves where they had been placed in the days of Abraham.

Nowhere can the fact of this marvellous resurrection of a forgotten civilisation be better brought home to us than in the British Museum. Not so very long ago a single glass case was sufficient to contain all the Assyrian and Babylonian monuments that were known to exist; now it is difficult to find room for them, and the inscribed clay tablets alone are numbered by thousands. Again and again the space allotted to them has had to be enlarged, the latest addition being a room which has just been opened to the public. Here the objects which best illustrate the history and culture of Babylonia and the other countries over which its influence extended have been selected and arranged with great skill, under the able superintendence of Dr. Budge. The result is that we have in it, as it were, an object-lesson in Babylonian history and civilisation; the monuments are arranged in chronological order, and the labels attached to them explain fully their nature and age. No one who visits the room can fail to come away without some idea, at least, of what Babylonian civilisation was like and of the outlines of its history.

In connexion with the opening of this new room a Guide has been prepared to the whole collection of "Babylonian and Assyrian Antiquities" now exposed to public view. The Guide is at once full, clear, and interesting. Translations or paraphrases are given of the more important inscriptions described in it, and there are as many as thirty-four excellent plates illustrative of Assyro-Babylonian geography, art and writing. Short introductions contain a brief account of the history of the people, as well as of the languages they spoke and their mode of writing. The British public henceforth has no excuse for not knowing as much about the ancient civilisation of Western Asia as it professes to do about that of Greece.

Among other objects exhibited in the new room, and described in the Guide, are casts of inscriptions from the Behistun Rock and other parts of Persia which first led to the decipherment of the cuneiform texts. In another case are the tablets from Tel-el-Amarna which have thrown such a flood of light on the land of Canaan in the century before the Exodus. Elsewhere are the autograph letters of Khammurabi, the contemporary of Abraham, as well as numerous contracts and similar commercial documents dated in the reigns of his immediate successors. The famous Deluge and Creation tablets are left in the "Nineveh Gallery," but a full account of them will be found in the Guide.

No pains have been spared to make the "Guide" as complete and accurate as possible. One or two corrections, however, may be noted for a second edition. The name of "Minûa," King of Van, should be corrected into Menuas, and his date is not B.C. 700 but a century earlier. The bronze shields and other objects described on p. 99 did not come from Van but from Toprak Kaleh, and their date is fixed by the inscriptions upon them which show that they were dedicated by a King of Van who was a contemporary of Assur-bani-pal. Rim-Sin or Eri-Aku was not a predecessor of Khammurabi as is laid down in the list of Babylonian kings at the beginning of the volume, but his contemporary, as is more correctly stated further on. Finally, a short index would be a boon.

FOUR NOVELS.

"Love and Mr. Lewisham." By H. G. Wells. London: Harper. 1900. 6s.

From Mr. Wells, novel-readers have come to expect a startling original plot and a breezy atmosphere. What then must be their disappointment when they turn to his latest narrative and find neither monsters nor machinery, not the minutest deviation from the sloughs of monotonous mediocrity, never even the promise of a surprise. Mr. Wells must suffer from that yearning for versatility, which has so often affected great men too. He is evidently coquetting with the decadent school and may be deemed an apt pupil, for a more morbid, sordid, hopelessly dull and depressing dissection of characters it were difficult to conceive.

We wallow in gloom from cover to cover amid a succession of dreary episodes and when we reach the end the clouds remain as thick as ever, no dramatic climax, whether of relief or disaster, is foreshadowed, and we come away with a choking sensation as from the worst stations of the underground railway. No doubt Mr. Wells would retort that here is a tribute to his art in depicting the sordid hopelessness of the life of the lower middle classes; but to do that, he should have created a hero and heroine capable of arousing sympathy for undeserved sufferings. Whether or no he meant to teach, he has certainly failed to interest or amuse, and we can only hope that he may quickly return to those old fields, where the Pegasus of his imagination roamed uncurbed.

"Colonial Born: a Tale of the Queensland Bush." By G. Firth Scott. London: Sampson Low. 1900. 6s.

Mr. Scott has contrived to write a very spirited Australian story without introducing a single genuine bushranger. There is, however, plenty of gold-seeking and gold-robbing, perilous quests of fortune and wild chases after desperadoes. There is a slight love story, but the entanglements of the plot are not to be solved at a single reading. One has a vague impression that everybody is really some unexpected person's husband or father, and a genealogical tree at the end would be a boon to the reader, who might pledge himself not to look at it until the mysteries are supposed to be solved. But this is a trivial matter not affecting the vigour of the descriptions. Australian novels have often some of the monotony of the Never-Never country: "Colonial Born" is written with admirable verve, and should stand high in the works of what we may call the Boldrewood school.

"Logan's Loyalty." By Sarah Tytler. London: John Long. 1900. 6s.

"True hearts are more than coronets" is the not startlingly new moral of this pleasant, simple little book. The plot is weak. A cultured, well-bred girl would hardly flee from her home and marry a lout, just because she fears some pressure will be put upon her to take a man she dislikes. The high-spirited Logan of the story would have stayed at home, held her head high and resisted. However, granting the improbable foundation, the story is well worked out, and Logan's growing love for her humble Sandy prettily shown. Why does the author bracket the simplest Scotch words with the English version? Is the Kailyard always with us for nothing, that we need translations of "greet," "dour," "havers," "canny" and even "daddie"? We had imagined the last word a not unfamiliar one this side of the border.

"A Cynic's Conscience." By C. T. Podmore. London: Arnold. 1900. 6s.

This is a strangely misnamed book, for the "Cynic" is not a cynic and has no conscience. Regarded either as an analysis of an inquisitive but morbidly sophistical mind, or as a sombre survey of the sacrifice of the innocent to the guilty, the story shows some power and originality, though it fails conspicuously to satisfy the moral and psychological cravings that it excites. In so difficult a branch of fictional art, it is perhaps better to have tried and failed than not to have tried at all, and we think that Mr. Podmore may one day give us a more workmanlike narrative.

NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

"Royal Ascot: its History and Associations." By G. J. Cawthorne and R. I. Herod. London: Longmans. 1900. 31s. 6d. net.

This is a very handsome volume worthily commemorative of the historic racecourse which it treats adequately both from the point of view of letterpress and illustration. Many expert hands have been commandeered in its preparation, and patrons of "the sport of kings" will assuredly accord it hearty welcome. Although horse-races apparently were held in England as far back as the time of the Crusades, the first authentic record of them dates from 1512. "But it was not until the Stuarts came to

the English throne that horse-racing, as we understand it to-day, came into vogue." Ascot owed its origin to Queen Anne. "We can imagine the Queen," say the writers of "Royal Ascot," "on one of her drives through the country in the early summer of 1711, stopping on the Common at Ascot, and her sportsmanlike eye at once taking in the natural advantages offered for her favourite sport, giving orders for a course to be at once prepared and then announcing her intention of presenting a plate to be raced for." Under George I. horse-racing languished and Ascot's career seems to have very nearly come to a summary end. The most brilliant chapter in its history is that of the present reign, a period which has been marked by the most gratifying progress on the Turf as in other directions.

"Exit Party." By Sir Frederick Young, K.C.M.G. London: Chapman and Hall. 1900. 3s. 6d.

Sir Frederick Young's life has been devoted to the cause of Imperial unity. The Government "of the Empire by the Empire for the Empire" is the ideal to which he has sought to educate the public for many years past. "Exit Party" is "an essay on the rise and fall of party as the ruling factor in the formation of the governments of Great Britain." Sir Frederick advocates the reconstruction on improved lines of the principle of Cabinet responsibility. Imperial Federation is to be the watchword of the only party worth considering. Sir Frederick has a painfully loose idea of Socialism. He confounds it with Anarchy and thinks it can be successfully combated only by Liberal Imperialism. But does Sir Frederick really believe that Lord Rosebery is likely to do anything to promote Imperial Federation? That Lord Rosebery is loyal to the Empire is certain, but Imperial federationists are laying up grave disappointment for themselves if they expect him to take any practical step to advance the cause.

"Sir George White, V.C." By Thomas F. G. Coates. London: Grant Richards. 1900. 3s. 6d.

Sir George White's story begins with the Indian Mutiny and ends with the war in South Africa. In the interval there were wars in Afghanistan, in Burmah, in Egypt and on the Indian frontier. "The hero of Ladysmith" saw stirring service in them all. Such a career must be of interest. Promotion came late to Sir George White, but when he had once started to climb the ladder his progress was rapid. Mr. Coates' work has necessarily been hastily done, and he has had little opportunity for giving a literary turn to the memoir. Nor is his subject quite so full of individuality and originality as a Roberts, a Macdonald or a Baden-Powell. The chief claim of the book to notice is perhaps that it is the first lengthy record of the services Sir George White has rendered his country and his Queen.

The Declaration of Paris of 1856, by Thomas Gibson Bowles (London: Sampson Low. 1900) is described as "being an account of the maritime rights of Great Britain: a consideration of their importance: a history of their surrender by the signature of the Declaration of Paris: and an argument for their resumption by the denunciation and repudiation of that declaration." Mr. Bowles makes out a strong case. Had Great Britain not subscribed to the Declaration of Paris she could, he argues, have stopped the supplies of the Transvaal carried under neutral flags and the war would have been shortened accordingly. In a conflict with a great Power the disabilities imposed by the Declaration would operate much more to our disadvantage than to that of any possible enemy.—"British America" (Vol. III. British Empire Series: London: Kegan Paul. 1900. 6s.) is a collection of useful essays descriptive and historical dealing with the various provinces of the Canadian Dominion and the West Indies. They have mostly done duty before as lectures, but the contributors comprise such authorities as Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal, Mr. Peter Byrne, Mr. J. G. Colmer, Mr. W. S. Sebright Green, Sir J. G. Bourinot and Sir Augustus Adderley. "Whatever gift God has given to man," said Lord Dufferin some years ago, "is to be found within the borders of Canada's ample territories." It is the object of the collection to prove to those who are still ignorant of the resources of Canada that the retiring Governor-General did not exaggerate.—"Calendar of Letter Books of the City of London: Letter Book B" (edited by Reginald R. Sharpe. London: J. E. Francis. 1900) covers the period from 1275 to 1312 and is mainly devoted to the record of recognisances. The book serves to illustrate the civic life of London in the thirteenth century.—"A Peep into Punch," by J. Holt Schooling (London: Newnes. 1900. 5s.)—"a desultory, delightful, demd delicious peep" as Mr. Mantalini would say, will be already familiar to the readers of the "Strand Magazine." The political and social interest of this budget from "The London Charivari" is considerable.

We have received a copy of a paper on "Tithe and its Rating" by Mr. Montague Barlow (Economic Journal: Macmillan). Addressed to a Church Congress audience, Mr. Barlow's treatment of this very complicated question was necessarily elementary, but even so we doubt if his audience, unless he had the good fortune to attract the crème de la crème of the Congress, followed him. In any case, the fault is

not his for he has made tithe as intelligible to the plain man as knowledge can make it. This paper is really useful as giving a just and tenable view of the clerical case as to the rating of tithe, while wholly avoiding the ridiculous overstatement and misstatement of professional Church defenders. Mr. Barlow shows that it was not originally intended that clerical titheowners should be rated as holders of real property; that the Courts have uniformly and progressively construed the law against the clergy; that in the matter of deduction the clerical titheowner has been put in a less favourable position than other ratepayers, and so has a real grievance; that, on the other hand, it is perfectly just that clerical tithe should contribute to the rates, and the contention that it should escape as "professional income" is nonsense.

"The World's Epoch-Makers" (Edinburgh: T. and T. Clark. 3s. per vol.) is the title of a new series. No less than twenty-eight volumes are projected, including such various types of epoch-making greatness as Buddha, Origen, Scotus, the Herschels, Schleiermacher, and Newman. The series makes a very good start. We have never seen a juster and more sympathetic analysis of the curiously mingled character of Archbishop Cranmer than that given by Mr. A. D. Innes in "Cranmer and the Reformation in England." Professor Lindsay in "Luther and the German Reformation" writes as a strong Protestant, but has evidently taken great pains to present a true picture of his hero. Mr. Snell's account of "Wesley and Methodism" is discriminating and readable. We do not like small and popular books on great subjects, but, if we must have them, it would be difficult to have them more satisfactory than these.

Messrs. Eyre and Spottiswoode have just published a "New Pocket Dictionary of the Spanish and English Languages," by G. F. Barwick. The value of Spanish, to commercial men especially, has of recent years been more generally recognised and a dictionary which is really available for pocket purposes will be a boon.

FRENCH LITERATURE.

La Carrière d'André Tourette. By Lucien Muhlfeld. Paris: Ollendorff. 1900. 3f. 50c.

There are thousands of Tourettes in Paris; and they rejoice and prosper. Born in a somewhat humble and obscure sphere, they enter an office eventually but are made "énervés" by the work. Regular hours trouble them. Accounts bother their brain. Stools make them stiff. Enviously, they regard the son of the house and his friends who haunt night restaurants and gay theatres, and who support mistresses. They themselves approach dissipated places after a time, and meet directors, coulissiers, journalists, viveurs, and gay men of all kinds; soon they abandon their offices for a small position in a theatre or a scandalous post on a corrupt newspaper, and begin their sordid career. André is no worse than his kind; indeed, at moments we are disposed to think more indulgently of him than of his wealthier and faster friends. He is simply atrociously weak. Being handsome he is flattered; and his head is turned. Margot, the beautiful and popular demi-mondaine, treats him so kindly that he believes at once that he possesses merits far superior to those of other men. Else, why should she remain faithful to him, and adore him, and be proud of him in spite of his poverty and petty position in an open-air theatre? They dine together; and Margot pays. They go to the races; and Margot determines to spend her winnings on a honeymoon in the country. André protests lamely, then Margot embraces him. And André lets himself be paid for: accepts everything. For years he remains faithful to his mistress. But were the advantages of the union not altogether in his favour we suspect he would have abandoned Margot before very long. Complacently, he takes all her kindnesses; boldly he elbows his way into a rich but vulgar society, it is André's philosophy to make only important and useful friends. After supping in a luxurious restaurant, however, or taking tea in Margot's luxurious salon he must go back to his own dim room; and he is short of money when his mother dies leaving him a few thousand francs. Then, André says good-bye to Margot; and mixes with prosperous people, and gambles at the Bourse, and loses his small inheritance. His good looks leave him; he becomes stout. He is no longer a fascinating André; a popular André, a dashing man. But he is Tourette still, selfish, vain, and unable to work; and so he marries Lise Amelin, the daughter of a simple family, who admires him in spite of his corpulence and whose honour it becomes to support him until the end of this extremely vivid and remarkable book. Here, we can do it but scant justice, but its powers have been recognised so quickly in Paris that it has been pronounced already to be the novel of the season. Nor are we surprised. M. Lucien Muhlfeld has sketched André and Margot with such strength and insight that they hold one's interest from first to last. Those around them are no less powerfully portrayed; and, although they do not

(Continued on page 756.)

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make a moral monde, their doings are never represented in an offensive and obscene light. We have not read any of M. Muhlfield's earlier books, but we wish his better acquaintance and look forward to the successor of "André Tourette's Career."

Les Princesses d'Amour. (Courtisanes Japonaises.) By Madame Judith Gautier. Paris: Ollendorff. 1900. 3f. 50c.

Though the title may be considered "suggestive," there is nothing deliberately immoral in this charmingly written book. Style, indeed, seems to be Madame Gautier's strong point; it is long since we have come across such graceful prose. "Les Princesses d'Amour" are languid little Japanese ladies who live in luxury, and who love. Each has a story to tell of past adventures or of present dreams and hopes. Many have loved and been loved by some prince who, in order to make his mistress his wife, has used stratagem to gain his father's consent. The stratagem failed; and the poor little courtesan had to remain behind and weep. Some tell stories of others who turned out to be real princesses stolen in the beginning, and who triumphed in the end. And there are fifteen stories in all, each of which makes original and delicate reading.

Paris de 1800-1900. Edited by Charles Simond. Paris: Plon. 1900. 1f. 75c. net.

This number of M. Simond's admirable work concludes the first of the three parts, having, with its six predecessors, exhausted the life of Paris during the Consulate, First Empire, and Restoration. No event of any importance that took place between 1800 and 1830 has escaped the attention of the editor and his indefatigable collaborators; they have accomplished a third of their task with complete success, but months must pass before they will be able to take an honourable rest. We have already given an account of the principal features of this amazing production, and so it only remains with us to say that "Paris from 1830 to 1870" will be viewed in the next eight numbers, and that the life under the Third Republic will be the theme of the last six parts. Thus, it will be seen that every issue covers a period of five years, and that the work, when it is at last completed, will be valuable, as unique.

Souvenirs Tirés des Papiers du Comte A. de la Ferrounays. By le Marquis Costa de Beauregard. Paris: Plon. 1900. 7f. 50c.

To the vast quantity of memoirs that appear with amazing regularity in Paris, we have much pleasure in adding this handsome and admirable volume. The period it deals with (1777-1814) is a favourite one; yet in all the memoirs we have read of that time, we have always come across something new, interesting, and exciting. To deal, however, with the Marquis de Beauregard's volume as it deserves is quite out of the question: it would need far more space than we have at our command to give a good idea of the interesting life of its hero, and so we must content ourselves with recommending this valuable work to all who are interested in the days of the Revolution and Napoleon.

Les Histoires Amoureuses d'Odile. By Jacques Vontade. Paris: Ollendorff. 1900. 3f. 50c.

"Confessions" we think would have been a more appropriate term. We must hasten to add, however, that Odile is by no means an improper person and that it is not her aim to scandalise her readers by an account of intrigues and liaisons. Like many of her kind she yearns for "the happy life," and alas! does not find it at home with her husband. They are separated; Odile travels, but the men she meets are invariably selfish cynical creatures who disgust her. No sooner does she begin to believe in some would-be lover than she finds him out in a lie or a plot; and so Odile, in spite of her longing for consolation, remains faithful to her husband. In the end, they come together again, and, we suppose, live happily ever after.

L'Œuvre Internationale. June. 60c.

We are glad to see that the honourable career of the "Œuvre Internationale" has not been interrupted by the untimely death of its founder and editor, M. Jean Sévère. Its contributors are young writers of all nationalities whose aim is to promote a friendly feeling between all countries, and whose motto may be said to be "L'Humanité. La Vérité. La Justice." They welcome all opinions, and are open to all ideas, but on the other hand they do not hesitate to express themselves plainly, even dogmatically in affairs of the State and on "le militarisme." M. Frédéric Passy is one of their "patrons," and Dr. Moncreu Conway another, both have contributed encouraging "messages" to this "Jeunesse." But the "Œuvre" is chiefly written by less practised though extremely promising "littérateurs," and we see no reason why, if it remains faithful to its programme and principles, it should not have an honourable and even a distinguished future.

Revue des Revues. 1 juin. 1f. 30c.

A particularly interesting paper on the youth of Guy de Maupassant shows him to have been a remarkable boy.

Worshipped and spoilt by his mother he nevertheless had a charming character, and many examples of his consideration for the poor and his pity for the suffering are recorded here by Madame Renée d'Ulmès, his latest biographer. Guy was in no way gloomy in his youth; pessimism came upon him much later on, and it is strange to think of the author of the grim "Père Milon" and "Colporteur" playing practical jokes and doing his utmost, merrily however, to shock a very rigid and unsympathetic English governess. Some hitherto unpublished verses, "Dernière Soirée avec ma Maîtresse," in another part of this review, show Guy de Maupassant at his saddest. They were written as far back as 1868, but show wonderful power. M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu discusses the rôle that America is to play in Europe later on with much seriousness; M. Gaston Cagniard has some interesting anecdotes in his article "A la Martinique," while the "collaborators of the Review" offer an admirable criticism on the latest French books.

Revue Bleue. 60c.

In an extremely dignified article M. J. Cornély (the distinguished "leader" writer of the "Figaro") discusses the condition of the French Press at the beginning of the new century. He is not in favour of the law that would rob it of much of its independence, because he thinks with reason that journalists should respect their readers and themselves too much to indulge in a dishonourable style. He recognises, however, that certain sections of the French Press are conducted in a deplorable manner, and appeals to journalists to show more toleration and dignity. "Zadig" on Pierre Loti is highly refreshing. Gently chiding him for his invariable egoism and mysterious melancholy, he reviews his past, now at the French Academy when Loti made his speech and spoke only of Loti, afterwards in his ship, then in the drowsy East. And he winds up with a fine appreciation of Loti's exquisite style.

For This Week's Books see page 758.

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Saturday Review.

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CAPITAL - - - - - £490,000,

In 490,000 Shares of £1 each, of which 448,989 Shares are Issued.

INTERIM REPORT

For the Year ending 31st December, 1899.

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A. BEIT (alternate H. A. ROGERS). J. C. WERNHER (alternate G. ROULIOT).
M. MICHAELIS (alternate H. W. GLENNY). S. NEUMANN (alternate J. G. HAMILTON).
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Paris Committee.

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G. E. WEBBER.

Consulting Mechanical Engineer.

L. I. SEYMOUR.

Secretary.

F. RALEIGH.

Transfer Secretary.

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London Secretary.

A. MOIR.

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London Office 120 BISHOPSGATE STREET WITHIN, E.C.
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Interim Report of Directors for the year ending 31st December, 1899.

To the Shareholders.

GENTLEMEN,
In consequence of the outbreak of hostilities between Great Britain and the South African Republic, your Directors have not been able to convene the Annual General Meeting of Shareholders, which is usually held during March, nor are they able to issue the Annual Report for the Financial Year ending 31st December, 1899, and it has therefore been decided to issue an Interim Report in order to afford Shareholders full information in connection with the Company's operations during 1899, and to accompany it with a provisional unaudited Balance Sheet as at 31st December, 1899.

VENDOR'S INTEREST.

The Vendor's Interest in the Company has been acquired for 110,003 Shares of £1 each, in accordance with a resolution passed at a Special General Meeting of Shareholders held on 17th August, 1899.

SUBDIVISION OF SHARES.

At a Special General Meeting of Shareholders held on 24th August, 1899, it was decided to subdivide the Company's existing £1 Shares into four Shares of 5s. each. In consequence of the very heavy preparations which had to be made for the issue of the new Certificates and Bearer Warrants before the necessary alterations in the Articles of Association could be registered, such registration was not effected when war broke out, and the matter now stands in abeyance until the cessation of hostilities.

CAPITAL AND RESERVE SHARES.

The Capital of the Company has been increased in accordance with a resolution passed at a Special General Meeting of Shareholders held on 17th August, 1899, by the creation of 90,000 new Shares of £1 each, which brings the Nominal Capital up to £490,000. The Shares issued during the past year amount to 111,833 Shares of £1 each, viz., 110,903 Shares issued to the Vendor in exchange for the Vendor's Interest, and 950 Shares issued at £35 each to acquire property. The Issued Capital now stands at £448,989, and 41,011 Shares of £1 each remain in reserve.

DEBENTURE ISSUE.

The Debenture Issue remains as last reported, and stands at £1,000,000.

ACCOUNTS.

The Accounts submitted show a net profit of £955,603 9s. 4d. This sum brings the total profit earned to date to £3,106,833 6s., which has been dealt with as follows:—
Dividends Nos. 1 and 2, paid £ 590,700 10 0
Paid on account of Vendor's Lien (prior to acquisition of Vendor's Interest) 84,521 10 0
Balance of Profit carried forward 2,521,611 6 0
£3,106,833 6 0

The Balance of Profit carried forward is accounted for thus:—

INVESTMENTS—	
Claims, Water-rights, Farms, Real Estate, Shares and Debentures, &c., as per Balance Sheet	£3,133,354 18 2
CASH AND CASH ASSETS—	
Cash in hand, Amounts owing by Subsidiary and other Companies, &c., and Machinery and Stores on hand, as per Balance Sheet	1,969,314 11 1
	£4,442,669 9 3
Liabilities, as per Balance Sheet, including Debenture Issue	
Capital raised by Issues of Shares, including Premiums	£1,372,195 3 3
	508,863 0 0
	1,881,058 3 3
	£2,521,611 6 0

EXTRACTS FROM

GENERAL MANAGER'S REPORT.

MINING CLAIMS.

During the year 208,043 86 Claims were disposed of to other Companies, viz., 9,613 Claims to the City Deep, Limited, 61,366 Claims to the Wolhuter Deep, Limited, and 137,104 25 Claims to the South Nourse, Limited, in exchange for Shares in these Companies. In addition to this, 59,67 Claims were sold for cash, and 36,934 44 Claims were acquired during the year.

These changes reduced the Company's Claim Holding at 31st December, 1899, to 105,348 1 Claims, as against 336,337 1 Claims at 31st December, 1898.

RESERVOIRS.

The Company's Reservoirs and Pumping Stations have continued in good repair, and up to the time of closing down the Mills carried on the usual pumping operations.

During the year there was expended on Capital Account, for extensions of Pipe, Line and additions to Pumping Stations, the sum of £4,225 5s. 5d., of which amount £2,968 19s. 11d. was on account of the Natal Spruit Plant, and £1,256 5s. 6d. on account of the Booyens's Spruit Plant.

The total Capital Expenditure on these Reservoirs to date amounts to £162,168 11s. 2d., viz., £112,357 19s. 4d. on the Natal Spruit Reservoir, and £49,810 11s. 10d. on the Booyens's Spruit Reservoir.

The past season's rainfall was again short and inadequate, and, with the greater demand made on the Reservoirs on account of the increased milling power, other sources of supply were depended upon to a considerable extent in order to keep the various Mills running to their full capacity.

SUBSIDIARY COMPANIES.

A new Company—the South Nourse, Limited—was added to the list of Subsidiary Companies in February. This Company's property consists of a block of 200,687 Claims lying immediately south of the Nourse Deep, Limited, in the zone of the second row of Deep Levels. Operations were commenced by the Company in June, and up to the time of suspending work in October a considerable portion of the permanent surface equipment had been completed, and the two Main Shafts, sunk to a depth of about 75 feet each.

It is difficult to determine now, with any degree of accuracy, the depth at which the Reef Series will be intersected in this property, owing to indications seen on the surface of a probable displacement of some magnitude in the reef formation. Roughly calculating, however, the shafts, where located, should cut the Reefs at average depths of 2,300 to 2,400 feet.

The addition of the South Nourse, Limited, makes a total of ten Companies now comprised in the Rand Mines group. Of this number nine are milling, two—the Langlaagte Deep, Limited, and the Ferreira Deep, Limited—having entered the productive stage in March and May respectively.

Milling operations were continued by the various Companies up to about the first week in October, when all work at the mines was obliged to be suspended on account of the political troubles.

The results obtained by these Companies during their milling period have been very satisfactory.

RAND MINES, LIMITED—Continued.

PROVISIONAL BALANCE SHEET,

31st December, 1899.

CAPITAL AND LIABILITIES.

Dn.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
To Capital Account—						
480,000 Shares of £1 each	480,000	0	0			
41,011 Shares of £1 each in reserve ..	41,011	0	0			
489,989 Shares				448,989	0	0
Made up as follows:—						
As per Balance Sheet, 31st December, 1899, 337,136 Shares ..	£337,136	0	0			
Issued to Vendor under resolution of General Meeting held 17th August, 1899, 111,903 Shares ..	110,903	0	0			
Issued to acquire property, 950 Shares	950	0	0			
£448,989	0	0				
Share Premium Account—						
As per Balance Sheet, 31st December, 1899 ..	138,477	0	0			
Premiums received on 950 Reserve Shares issued during 1899	32,330	0	0			
				170,777	0	0
5 per cent. Debentures—						
Authorised Issue	1,250,000	0	0			
Less, in Reserve	250,000	0	0			
				1,000,000	0	0
Sundry Shares Subscribed for—						
68,112 South Norw., Ltd., Shares, 54s. 6d. per Share uncalled	185,605	4	0			
13,678 Village Deep, Ltd., Shares, 1s. per Share uncalled	683	18	0			
15,791 Robinson Central Deep, Ltd., Shares, 13s. 6d. per Share uncalled	10,658	18	6			
4,702 City Deep, Ltd., Shares, 58s. per Share uncalled	13,636	16	0			
44,567 Wolhuter Deep, Ltd., Shares, 43s. per Share uncalled	106,970	15	0			
				317,574	12	6
Debiture Interest—						
On account of Coupon No. 5	£21	2	6			
On account of Coupon No. 6, for half-year ending 31st December, 1899	25,000	0	0			
				25,021	2	6
Sundry Shareholders—						
Dividends uncalled	2,652	12	0			
Sundry Creditors—						
On account of Sundries	26,976	16	3			
				54,650	10	9
Profit and Loss Account—						
Balance				2,521,611	6	0
				£4,513,572	9	3

PROPERTY AND ASSETS.

Cn.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
By Vendor's Interest Account—						
110,903 £1 Shares paid to Vendor on acquisition of Vendor's Interest under Agreement of 17th February, 1899, and in accordance with Resolution of Shareholders of 17th August, 1899	110,903	0	0			
Claims and Water-Rights—						
105,941 Mining Claims and Water-Rights ..	21,878	7	9			
Farm Woodfontein—						
Freehold, in extent 611 morgen 228 rods ..	12,436	7	8			
Farm Langlaagte—						
Freehold rights on 306 Claims	13,457	13	3			
General Manager's House	9,133	11	11			
Jeppes town House Property	2,441	1	7			
Live Stock and Vehicles	266	9	6			
Office Furniture	1,866	6	3			
Bearer Share Warrants	522	12	10			
				14,230	2	1
Shares and Debentures—						
257,520 Glen Deep, Ltd., Shares of £1 ..						
154,232 Rose Deep, Ltd., do. ..						
122,558 Goldenhuis Deep, Ltd., do. ..						
9,771 Simmer and Jack ..						
307,980 Jumpers Deep, Ltd., do. ..						
296,413 Nourse Deep, Ltd., do. ..						
204,336 South Nourse, Ltd., do. ..						
40,330 Wolhuter G. M., Ltd., Shares of £4 ..						
189,119 Wolhuter Deep, Ltd., Shares of £1 ..						
30,229 City Deep, Ltd., do. ..						
52,149 Village Main Reef ..						
G. M. Co., Ltd., do. ..	2,937,821	1	3			
54,713 Village Deep, Ltd., do. ..						
464,788 Ferreira Deep, Ltd., do. ..						
63,164 Robinson Central Deep, Ltd., do. ..						
232,760 Crown Deep, Ltd., do. ..						
403,300 Langlaagte Deep, Ltd., do. ..						
180,150 South Rand G. M. Co., Ltd., do. ..						
189,763 Paarl Central G. M. and E. Co., Ltd., do. ..						
59,000 Durban Roopepoort Deep, Ltd., do. ..						
1 Chamber of Mines Debenture	100	0	0			
				2,937,821	1	3

PROPERTY AND ASSETS—Continued.

Cn.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Brought forward—						
By Reservoirs and Pumping Plants, &c.—						
Natal Spruit Reservoir and Pumping Plant	112,357	19	4			
Booyesen's Spruit Reservoir and Pumping Plant	49,810	11	10			
Traction Engine and Wagons	1,262	15	0			
				163,431	6	2
Sundry Debtors—						
Glen Deep, Ltd., Advance Account ..	11,537	16	4			
Jumpers Deep, Ltd., do. ..	14,778	7	6			
Langlaagte Deep, Ltd., do. ..	503,911	18	9			
Paarl Central G. M. & E. Co., Ltd., do.	30,000	0	0			
				560,228	2	7
Amounts owing by Subsidiary Companies on Current Accounts	40,152	5	0			
Sundry Persons	23,580	18	1			
				623,961	5	8
Union Bank of London, Ltd. ..	1,245	11	9			
De Nationale Bank, Johannesburg ..	776	2	7			
Standard Bank of S.A., Cape Town	1,177	10	2			
Cash in Hand	14	10	2			
Deposits on Call	589,889	7	8			
				593,083	2	4
Machinery, Plant and Stores—						
In Stock	7,115	2	11			
In Transit	45,156	0	2			
				52,270	3	1
				645,353	5	5
				£4,513,572	9	3
F. RALEIGH, Secretary.				F. ECKSTEIN, Chairman.		
				G. ROULIOT, Director.		

PROVISIONAL PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT, 12 months ending 31st December, 1899.

Dn.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
To Administration Expenses—						
Directors', Auditors', and Debenture Trustees' Fees ..	2,080	0	0			
London and Paris Offices	684	11	3			
Stationery, Printing, Advertising, Postages, and Telegrams	3,044	13	4			
Legal Expenses	602	12	10			
Sundry General Expenses	5,741	19	7			
				12,163	17	0
Dividend Account—						
Interim Dividend No. 2 of 75 per cent., declared 27th June, 1899	253,564	10	0			
*Vendor's Lien Account—						
Amount paid to Vendor in terms of Agreement of 17th February, 1899, being one-fourth of amount for distribution in connection with Dividend No. 2	34,521	10	0			
				338,086	0	0
Balance				2,521,611	6	0
*In consequence of the Vendor's Lien having been acquired by the Company on 17th August, 1899, no further payments will be made under this head.						
				£2,871,861	3	0

Cn.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
By Balance (from 1898)				1,903,093	16	8
Claim Realisation Account—						
Profit on Claims sold during 1899	292,344	8	8			
Share Realisation Account—						
Profit on Shares sold during 1899	347,823	4	2			
Dividends on Share Holdings—						
Glen Deep, Ltd., 10 per cent. for period ending 31st July, 1899	25,752	0	0			
Rose Deep, Ltd., 40 per cent. for six months ending 30th June, 1899	61,692	15	0			
Goldenhuis Deep, Ltd., 40 per cent. for six months ending 30th June, 1899	49,023	4	0			
Jumpers Deep, Ltd., 20 per cent. for period ending 30th September, 1899	61,496	0	0			
Nourse Deep, Ltd., 10 per cent. for period ending 31st July, 1899	29,841	6	0			
Village Main Reef G. M. Co., Ltd., balance of dividend declared in December, 1899, being 40 per cent. on 2,007 Shares of New Issue ..	832	16	0			
Village Main Reef G. M. Co., Ltd., 40 per cent. for six months ending 30th June, 1899	20,879	12	0			
Crown Deep, Ltd., 25 per cent. for six months ending 30th June, 1899	58,215	0	0			
				307,802	14	0
Natal Spruit and Booyesen's Spruit Reservoirs—						
Net Revenue	8,873	8	5			
Interest, Exchange and Commission—						
Net Revenue	9,266	10	5			
Sundry Revenue	2,657	0	8			
				963,767	6	4
				£2,871,861	3	0
F. RALEIGH, Secretary.				F. ECKSTEIN, Chairman.		
				G. ROULIOT, Director.		

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